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The right to food

Note by the Secretary-General**

The Secretary-General has the honour to transmit to the General Assembly the interim report of the Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights on the right to food, Jean Ziegler, in accordance with General Assembly resolution 59/202.

* A/60/150.
** This report is submitted late in order to contain as much updated information as possible.

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Summary

The Special Rapporteur hereby submits his fifth report to the General Assembly. He is gravely concerned that, after reporting last year to the General Assembly that hunger increased in 2003 to 842 million undernourished people across the world, he now has to report that global hunger again has increased in 2004, to 852 million undernourished women, children and men. He is gravely concerned by the situation of food crisis across Africa, detailing his visit to Niger in July 2005 in this report, and calls on Member States to act quickly to respond to food crises not only in Niger, but in all the affected states, and to take action to eradicate chronic undernourishment in all countries.

All human beings have the right to live in dignity, free from hunger. In a world that is richer than ever before, hunger and famine are not inevitable. They are a violation of human rights.

In the present report, he addresses two emerging issues that are affecting the right to food.

The first is the issue of the right to food of indigenous peoples. In most countries, hunger and malnutrition are disproportionately higher among indigenous than non-indigenous populations. It is therefore urgent to strengthen the protection of the right to food of indigenous peoples, including by improving the protection of their lands and resources. Governments have the obligation to respect, protect and fulfil the right to food of indigenous peoples and must not tolerate discrimination against them.

The second issue relates to the responsibilities of international organizations in regard to the right to food. The Special Rapporteur is concerned that projects financed by international organizations such as the World Bank can have a negative impact on the right to food of vulnerable populations, sometimes causing them to be displaced from their land and to lose access to their traditional lands and livelihoods. He is also concerned that the economic models of development currently promoted and imposed by international organizations such as the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund and the World Trade Organization are threatening the right to food of small farmers across the world. It is time that the right to food is respected in economic adjustment and trade liberalization measures to ensure that the poorest and most vulnerable communities are not left in even greater poverty and hunger. International organizations have human rights obligations to respect, protect and support the fulfilment of the right to food.

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I. Introduction

1. The Special Rapporteur has the honour to submit his fifth report to the General Assembly, as requested by the General Assembly in resolution 59/202 and the Commission on Human Rights in resolution 2005/18.

2. Despite the promise made by Member States to halve hunger in accordance with the Millennium Development Goals, the shocking news is that globally, hunger is continuing to increase. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), in *The State of Food Insecurity in the World 2004*, reports that hunger has increased in 2004 to 852 million of people gravely undernourished children, women and men, up by 10 millions since 2003. Although important recent progress has been made in some countries, the overall trend is one of regression, rather than the progressive realization of the right to food. In fact, it appears that hunger has increased every year since the World Food Summit in 1996.

3. The situation in Africa is particularly disturbing. At the time of writing of the present report, Niger, the Sudan, Somalia, Chad, Zimbabwe, Mauritania and Ethiopia were suffering from critical food emergencies.[1] Mali and Burkina Faso were also affected. A new study by the well-respected International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) found that chronic food insecurity in Africa has increased substantially since 1970, with the number of malnourished people in sub-Saharan Africa soaring from 88 million to 200 million in 1999-2001. The study also concluded that if investments were increased in water-harvesting technologies, agricultural extension, education and HIV/AIDS prevention and treatment, the percentage of malnourished children in Africa could come close to meeting the proposed Millennium Development Goal target by 2015.[2] It is possible to reduce hunger, but only if there is serious investment to address the underlying chronic malnutrition and pervasive poverty.

4. Chronic undernourishment persists in many countries around the world. Guatemala, which the Special Rapporteur visited this year, has suffered from an increase in cases of acute malnutrition as localized droughts and the collapse of international coffee prices exacerbated pervasive food insecurity. Guatemala has one of the highest levels of malnutrition and undernourishment in Latin America, particularly amongst indigenous peoples, with 60 per cent of families not getting enough to eat.[3] The Special Rapporteur welcomes the courageous efforts of the current Government, which has launched the initiative *Frente Contra el Hambre* (Front against Hunger), appointed a Commissioner Against Hunger and set up a powerful legal and policy framework that recognizes the Government's obligations to respect, protect and fulfil the right to food. He is also very supportive of the Government's efforts to catalyze action at the international level, through the holding of a regional Latin American conference on hunger eradication in September 2005. This sets a vivid example of the growing awareness of the need to catalyze action to eradicate hunger and malnutrition.

5. In the view of the Special Rapporteur, it is scandalous that in a world richer than ever before so many people struggle to survive. He calls on the General Assembly to take urgent action to fight famine everywhere, but also to fight chronic, debilitating malnutrition. It is unacceptable that more than five million infant children are killed by malnutrition and related diseases every year,[4] but it is also unacceptable that hundreds of millions of children do not eat enough to sustain a

normal life, leaving them mentally and physically stunted for the rest of their lives. This is absurd in a world that is entirely capable of eradicating hunger. According to FAO, the planet could produce enough food to provide 2,100 kcals per person per day to 12 billion people, that is, twice the existing world population. Hunger and famine are not inevitable. They are a violation of human rights.

6. All human beings have a right to live in dignity, free from hunger. The right to food and the right to freedom from hunger are human rights protected under international human rights and humanitarian law. The right to adequate food is recognized in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and has been authoritatively defined in general comment No. 12 (1999) in the following terms: "The right to adequate food is realized when every man, woman and child, alone or in community with others, has physical and economic access at all times to adequate food or means for its procurement" (para. 6). Based on the general comment, the Special Rapporteur summarizes the definition of the right to food as follows:

> "The right to food is the right to have regular, permanent and unrestricted access, either directly or by means of financial purchases, to quantitatively and qualitatively adequate and sufficient food corresponding to the cultural traditions of the people to which the consumer belongs, and which ensures a physical and mental, individual and collective, fulfilling and dignified life free of fear".[5]

7. The work of the Special Rapporteur to fight for realization of the right to food has included many activities over the last year. In his annual report to the Commission on Human Rights (E/CN.4/2005/47) he expressed grave concern about persistent violations of the right to food across the world, but also reported on several positive initiatives taken to fight hunger at both the global and local levels, including the adoption, in November 2004, of the "Voluntary Guidelines" by the FAO Council, which are ground-breaking principles that set out an internationally accepted definition of the right to food. In his report, he also examined the issue of "extraterritorial" responsibilities of States towards the right to food, and reported to the Commission on his missions to Ethiopia (E/CN.4/2005/47/Add.1) and to Mongolia (E/CN.4/2005/47/Add.2).

8. This year, the Special Rapporteur has carried out missions to Guatemala (in February 2005) and to India (in August 2005). He also carried out a special urgent mission to Niger in July 2005, which is detailed below. The Special Rapporteur has also made requests to undertake country missions to the Democratic People's Republic of Korea and Myanmar, but has received no response from the respective Governments. He has also continued to issue urgent appeals and press statements, individually and jointly with other special rapporteurs, on urgent situations related to the right to adequate food in Niger, Equatorial Guinea, India, Myanmar, Philippines, Pakistan, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Romania, the Sudan and Zimbabwe. He also made a press statement on the issue of excluding humanitarian food aid provided by the World Food Programme (WFP) from the negotiations in the Doha Round of the World Trade Organization (WTO).

II. Situation of special concern: famine in Niger

9. The Special Rapporteur conducted an urgent mission to Niger from 8 to 12 July 2005 The objective of the mission was to raise awareness about the dramatic food situation. He was accompanied by a United Nations television team and wishes to thank them for their efficient work in generating a reaction by the international community. Despite numerous appeals by the Government and the United Nations agencies since November 2004, there was little response to the crisis until August 2005. At a press briefing on 24 May 2005, the Under-Secretary-General for Humanitarian Affairs and Emergency Relief Coordinator Jan Egeland described Niger as "the number one forgotten and neglected emergency in the world".

10. During his mission, the Special Rapporteur witnessed the gravity of the situation. Almost a third of the population, around 3.6 million people, including 800,000 children, were facing acute malnutrition, and in some regions vulnerable people, in particular infant children, were already dying from starvation. According to the Government's surveillance of the hunger situation in July 2005, only 19 out of 106 zones were in a satisfactory food situation, the situation in all other zones being critical or extremely critical. During visits to Ouallam and Tondikiwindi, the Special Rapporteur saw evidence that thousands of farmers were reduced to subsisting on seeds gathered from termite mounds and roots and poisonous fruits called *Anza*. Most men had left the fields to try to find work and their undernourished wives were too weak to work in the fields, threatening the next harvest of millet that is not due before October, and only then if the rains come. The Special Rapporteur also visited the Saga Emergency Feeding Center operated by the Mother Theresa Sisters on the outskirts of Niamey, where he received reports that undernourished children were dying from hunger every week.

11. Niger is a proud country inhabited by some of the greatest civilizations of humanity — the Songhai, the Djerma, the Hausa, the Tuareg, the Peul — men and women of great dignity, courageous and hardworking. Yet, like other countries of the Sahel, Niger has been in economic and environmental crisis, with only brief respites, for much of the twentieth century. Since the 1970s, recurring drought and famine have become more severe. Not only is Niger's climate harsh and unforgiving, but the international climate is also not conducive to resolving the fundamental problems of the Sahel (see E/CN.4/2002/58/Add.1), and food crises cannot always be prevented by the Government.

12. The Special Rapporteur met with the President and the Prime Minister, as well as with the directors of the Food Crisis Unit, the Office for Food Production in Niger and the Early Warning System. He found that the Government had already taken action to address the emergency situation, selling food reserve stocks at reasonable prices, promoting the use of grain banks, and providing fodder to farmers. The Special Rapporteur urged the Government to begin free distribution of food aid to vulnerable groups, especially children, pregnant women and elderly people, and to guarantee free access to health units for undernourished children, as cost-recovery policies did not make sense in an extreme emergency. The Government agreed that it would do this as far as possible with its limited resources. The Special Rapporteur found that the role of the United Nations agencies (including UNICEF, FAO, WFP, UNDP, WHO, UNFPA, and the World Bank) and international non-governmental organizations (NGOs) (MSF, Action against

Hunger, Oxfam, World Vision, Plan International) was also critical, although their resources were limited.

13. The Special Rapporteur was concerned that the response of the international community was extremely slow. Of the US$ 16.2 million requested in the urgent appeal launched by the United Nations in May 2005 to cover basic essential needs, only $3.8 million had been received. Even the appeal by the Prime Minister on 28 May 2005 generated a slow response. However, the Special Rapporteur was encouraged that, with increased media attention, the response has been swifter since August 2005. The Arab States, including Algeria, Morocco, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Saudi Arabia and Dubai sent emergency food aid and promised funds. The European Union, France, Sweden, Norway, Switzerland, Belgium, Denmark, Germany and the United States of America also sent emergency aid and announced that they would contribute US$ 10 million. Venezuela alone announced that it would contribute $3 million.

14. In a press release issued on 13 July 2005, the Special Rapporteur emphasized that the right to food is a human right, and called on all Member States to honour their obligations to ensure the right to food of Niger's population. When a country does not have enough resources to fulfil the right to food of its population, it has a legal obligation to actively seek international assistance and cooperation, and other States have an obligation, depending on the availability of their resources, to facilitate the realization of the right to food through development cooperation and to provide emergency aid when required. National Governments have the primary obligation to respect, protect and fulfil the right to food of their populations. However, all Member States also have extraterritorial obligations to respect, protect and support the fulfil of the right to food of people living in other countries, as pointed out by the Special Rapporteur in his report to the Commission on Human Rights (see E/CN.4/2005/47, paras. 34-59). This means ensuring adequate provision of food aid, but it also means addressing the underlying factors that produce repeated famine.

15. The current crisis is the result of both unfavourable economic trends and structural shortcomings. Its immediate causes are the drought and the locust invasion that destroyed many crops in 2004, impeding pasture and cereal production; but its more profound causes are the pervasive food insecurity which heightens vulnerability to food crises. Of a population of 12 million, more than 3.6 million people suffer from chronic malnourishment, with 80 per cent suffering from food insecurity and 61 per cent living in extreme poverty (see E/CN.4/2002/58/Add.1). Even in normal years, one out of four children dies before the age of five. Despite being the second poorest country in the world, Niger receives very little development aid or investment compared to other countries and has few resources to invest in agriculture and irrigation necessary in its arid climate. The Special Rapporteur also believes that the market-based paradigm of development, largely imposed by IMF and the World Bank, has been harmful to food security for the most vulnerable. Cost-recovery policies in health centres, for instance, mean that many poor children are not being treated for malnutrition. During his visit in 2001, the Special Rapporteur also found that the privatization of Government support services, including the logistics and distribution system OPVN (Office des Produits Vivriers du Niger) and the veterinary services, had limited access to essential extension services, exacerbating food insecurity amongst small-scale farmers and pastoralists (see E/CN.4/2002/58/Add.1).

16. The immediate provision of free food aid is essential to avert famine. Addressing the underlying structural causes of hunger is also essential to limit vulnerability to future famines and to fully realize the right to food of the people of Niger. The Special Rapporteur therefore urges the Government of Niger, as well as the Governments of the Member States and international organizations, to take immediate action to respect, protect and fulfil the right to food in Niger.

III. The right to food of indigenous peoples

17. Over the years, a number of indigenous organisations have expressed, at the annual sessions of the Working Group on Indigenous People and most recently at the Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues, their deep concerns over the obstacles and challenges that their communities fact in fully enjoying their right to food. A number of indigenous organizations have urged the Special Rapporteur to address the question of the right to food of indigenous peoples as a separate question in his work. As was stated in the Declaration of Atitlán, at the First Indigenous Peoples' Global Consultation on the Right to Food in April 2002 in Guatemala:

> "the denial of the Right to Food for Indigenous Peoples not only denies our physical survival, but also denies us our social organization, our cultures, traditions, languages, spirituality, sovereignty, and total identity; it is a denial of our collective indigenous existence."

18. In international law, the right to adequate food and the fundamental right to be free from hunger applies to everyone without discrimination, yet the right to food of indigenous peoples is frequently denied or violated, often as a result of systematic discrimination or the widespread lack of recognition of indigenous rights. The levels of hunger and malnutrition among indigenous peoples are often disproportionately higher than among the non-indigenous population, and yet they often do not benefit from programmes designed to fight hunger and malnutrition or to promote development. Moreover, inappropriate development efforts often intensify the marginalization, poverty and food insecurity of indigenous peoples, failing to recognize indigenous ways of securing their own subsistence and ignoring their right to define their own path toward development. In its report to the Economic and Social Council, the Inter-Agency Support Group on Indigenous Issues expressed concern that the universality and simplicity of expression of the Millennium Development Goals may lead to homogenization instead of equality in respect of the enjoyment of human rights, if the specificities of indigenous peoples is not acknowledged and addressed (E/C.19/2005/2, section II, para. 7).

19. Indigenous and tribal peoples represent some 5,000 distinct peoples and around 350 million people, with the vast majority living in developing countries. It has long been understood that due to long historical processes of colonization, exploitation and political and economic exclusion, indigenous peoples are among the most vulnerable to poverty, hunger and malnutrition. The right to food is directly linked to the situation of extreme poverty under which many indigenous peoples live. One of the earliest international studies was carried out in 1953 by the International Labour Organization (ILO), which found that the living standards of indigenous populations were extremely low, considerably lower than those of the non-indigenous population.[6] Three decades later, the Special Rapporteur of the Subcommission José Martínez Cobo found that indigenous peoples were at the

bottom of the socio-economic scale.[7] The present Special Rapporteur on the situation of human rights and fundamental freedoms of indigenous people also found that "indigenous peoples the world over are usually among the most marginalized and dispossessed sectors of society" (A/59/258, para. 10). A research project undertaken by ILO study found that many poverty reduction strategies do not take indigenous peoples into account in the process or in the strategies proposed.[8] In a study published in 1994, the World Bank found that "poverty among Latin America's indigenous population is pervasive and severe" and that "the living conditions of the indigenous population are generally abysmal",[9] and in an update carried out in 2004, found that little progress had been made.[10]

20. A study undertaken by the Inter-Agency Support Group for the Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues[11] shows that despite widespread awareness of the vulnerability of indigenous peoples, there is a lack of disaggregated data on the situation of indigenous peoples and therefore often little information available about the exact extent of hunger and malnutrition. The general lack of information gathering often reflects the reluctance of Governments to recognize the issues faced by their indigenous populations. Only recently has data started to be collected. In Guatemala for instance, where the Government has made important efforts to disaggregate statistics, it is clear that indigenous peoples face much higher levels of poverty and malnutrition than the rest of the population. While half of all Guatemalan children under the age of five are stunted, malnutrition is much higher amongst indigenous children, with 70 per cent stunted in their growth compared to 36 per cent of non-indigenous children.[12]

21. Understanding what the right to food means to indigenous peoples is however far more complex than merely examining statistics on hunger, malnutrition or poverty. Many indigenous peoples have their own particular conceptions of food, hunger, and subsistence. In general, it is difficult to conceptually separate indigenous peoples' relationships with food from their relationships to land, resources, culture, values and social organization. Food, procurement and consumption of food are often an important part of culture, as well as of social, economic and political organization. Many indigenous peoples understand the right to adequate food as a collective right. They often see subsistence activities such as hunting, fishing and gathering as essential not only to their right to food, but to nurturing their cultures, languages, social life and identity. Their right to food often depends closely on their access to and control over their lands and other natural resources in their territories. For many traditional communities, especially those living in remote regions, access to hunting, fishing and gathering grounds for their subsistence livelihoods is essential for ensuring their adequate nutrition, as they may have no physical or economic access to marketed food. As a study on the food security of Inuit peoples of Alaska shows, "the legal protection of subsistence is a prerequisite to Inuit food security for nutritional, cultural and economic reasons".[13] The loss of access to traditional subsistence activities has left some indigenous communities dependent on cheap fast food, suffering from high levels of diabetes and other nutritional problems (see E/CN.4/2005/88/Add.2).

22. In the present section, the Special Rapport highlights key issues currently affecting the right to food of indigenous peoples across the world, and outlines a legal and conceptual framework to better address their right to food.

A. Key issues facing the right to food of indigenous peoples

The lack of recognition of rights to land and resources

23. The realization of indigenous peoples' right to food often depends crucially on their access to and control over the natural resources in the land and territories they occupy or use. Only then can they maintain traditional economic and subsistence activities such as hunting, gathering or fishing that enable them to feed themselves and preserve their culture and distinct identity. Yet for centuries, indigenous peoples have been dispossessed of their land, resources and access to water and that trend continues today. While indigenous land rights are largely vested on the community as such, with land being divided into individual or family holdings only for the purpose of economic use, this traditional form of ownership and possession has been under pressure for a long time, starting with colonization. Attempts have been made to break collective control of land and to allow for the privatisation of land and its subsequent transfer onto the market. In Guatemala for example, communally-held indigenous lands (*ejidos*) were nationalized or privatized as individual holdings in the 1800s, with the deliberate aim of consolidating the land into large coffee plantations. As the best coffee was cultivated at an altitude between 800 and 1,500 metres, many indigenous people were displaced from their lands and forced to relocate to steeper, less fertile ground for their subsistence farming.[14] More recent land reform processes aimed at facilitating and encouraging foreign investment are further undermining traditional indigenous forms of ownership over land, water and other resources. However, as the Special Rapporteur on the situation of human rights and fundamental freedoms of indigenous people has noted, "land, territory and resources constitute an essential human rights issue for the survival of indigenous peoples" (E/CN.4/2002/97, para. 57). In August 2001, for example, the Mayagna community of Awas Tingni won a case in the Inter-American Court of Human Rights, which ruled that the Government of Nicaragua had violated the community's property rights in granting their land to a foreign timber company, and imposed that the State recognize, demarcate and issue title for the land belonging to the Mayagna community.[15]

Appropriation of resources — intellectual property rights

24. For centuries, indigenous peoples have been dispossessed of their lands and resources, often through the imposition of colonial laws. Today, a similar pattern continues as indigenous peoples continue to lose even their genetic resources and indigenous knowledge. Indigenous peoples are concerned that recent developments in international intellectual property rights regimes represent a threat to indigenous access to and control over plant and animal genetic resources, as well as to community knowledge gained over generations. Concern is rising among indigenous communities and farmers about "bioprospecting" and the appropriation or "biopiracy" of their traditional knowledge and folklore, particularly about the curative and nutritive properties of plants and animals. Indigenous peoples see the WTO Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) as a framework for the appropriation of traditional knowledge by agrochemical industrialists and researchers in industrialized countries. They want to be consulted about the ways their knowledge is used, and to equitably share in any benefits.[16] They are particularly concerned about developments in biotechnology and intellectual property protection that could deprive indigenous farming communities

of their access to and control of seeds and livestock breeds, allowing intellectual property protection to "inventions" that will later require pay for its use.[17] In 1994 for example, two researchers of the Colorado State University researchers obtained a U.S. patent on quinoa, a high-protein grain traditionally used by Andean indigenous peoples in Bolivia and Ecuador. Indigenous peoples were frustrated that researchers in the United States could be granted the status of "inventors" of quinoa and given exclusive control over a traditional Bolivian variety. In 1998, Bolivia's National Association of Quinoa Producers (Asociación Nacional de Productores de Quinoa — ANAPQUI) managed to have the University surrender the patent.[18]

Negative impacts of inappropriate development

25. Development projects in lands and resources owned or controlled by indigenous can also threaten the right to food of indigenous communities. As the Special Rapporteur of the Subcommission on the Promotion and Protection on Human Rights Erica-Irene Daes noted in her final working paper on indigenous peoples and their relationship to land (E/CN.4/Sub.2/2001/21, para. 67), "economic development has been largely imposed from outside, with complete disregard for the right of indigenous peoples to participation in the control, implementation and benefits of development". Development projects are often carried out without the free, prior and informed consent of those affected, and can threaten the right to food through the destruction or loss of ancestral territories and resources or displacement. This often happens in the case of large-scale commercial exploitation of the resources on indigenous territories — including mining for minerals, oil or gas, logging, building dams and highways, or expanding industrial agriculture on indigenous lands, which can seriously threaten the right to food. Authorities rarely assess the likely impact of such projects nor do they take timely corrective action, despite legal obligations under the ILO Convention No. 169 concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries. In a case in Malaysia, the Malaysian Court of Appeal did award compensation to the Jakun tribe, an Orang Asli population, after the state government had appropriated more than 53,000 acres of ancestral lands in the southern state of Johor for the construction of a dam to supply water to Johor and Singapore, without consulting or the local communities or sharing the benefits with them.[19] In the Declaration of Atitlán on the right to food, the representatives of indigenous communities criticized the dominant model of economic development based on globalized free trade, industrial agriculture and unsustainable development, for undermining alternative modes of subsistence and violating their right to food.

Lack of access to justice

26. A critical element for the possibilities of indigenous peoples to enforce their right to food is their access to the judicial system. Even where indigenous do have access to justice, it is often limited by geographical distance, discrimination and prejudice, and the non-recognition of indigenous customary law and legal authorities. Often, the implementation of laws protecting indigenous rights is insufficient and indigenous themselves lack sufficient knowledge about the laws and institutions designed to protect their rights, a situation that results in third-party interests finding it easy to dispossess and exploit them. Indigenous peoples are also critical of the repression that often characterizes the relationship between Governments and indigenous communities, even when they have resolved their

cases. In a case reported to the Special Rapporteur, it was alleged that a group of 86 peasant families has been forcibly evicted from their land *El Maguey* farm (Fraijanes) in Guatemala, with their crops and irrigations system destroyed repeatedly by the police and the army over the last 2 years, despite the recognition that they own the land in a Governmental Agreement dated 7 April 2003 and a Constitutional Court decision dated 4 May 2004.[20] The Special Rapporteur is particularly concerned by some reports of the use of food as an instrument of political or economic pressures, particularly in situations of conflict. In Colombia, for instance there are serious concerns about blockades that prevent food reaching indigenous communities, threatening their food security and forcing them into the conflict (see E/CN.4/2005/88/Add.2).

B. Legal framework governing the right to food of indigenous peoples

27. The international framework for the protection of the rights of indigenous peoples is still relatively weak. The only international instrument offering specific protection is ILO Convention No. 169, which until now has been ratified by 17 countries. This Convention is important, protecting indigenous peoples' right to food, as well a broad range of civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights. Articles 13 to 17 provide special protection of indigenous peoples' rights to land and territories, and their right to participate in the use, management and conservation of these resources, requiring their participation and consultation before any exploitation of resources located on indigenous lands and prohibiting the displacement of indigenous communities.

28. The draft United Nations declaration on the rights of indigenous peoples, which is under discussion by the Commission on Human Rights since 1995, would offer greater protection, going beyond the ILO Convention. It recognizes the right to self-determination and rights over land and resources, acknowledging the historical injustices of colonization but also addressing contemporary threats posed by globalization, offering protection of traditional knowledge, biodiversity and genetic resources, and setting limits to activities of third parties on the territories of indigenous communities without their consent. However, the draft declaration has not been adopted by Governments, as many of them still contest the rights of indigenous peoples to self-determination, their ownership over land and resources, and the notion of collective rights.[21]

29. Nonetheless, broader human rights instruments offer protection to all peoples, including indigenous peoples. The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights protects the right of everyone to food in article 11. The Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, in its general comment No. 12 (1999) stresses their right to food by and highlights that "particular vulnerability is that of many indigenous population groups whose access to their ancestral lands may be threatened" (para. 13). The Committee also outlined that the right to adequate food implies that food is available, accessible, adequate and *culturally* acceptable, which means that food should correspond to the cultural traditions of the people. This has special implications for indigenous peoples, for whom culturally appropriate foods derive from subsistence-based activities, such as hunting, gathering or fishing, with implications in terms of maintaining their livelihoods. Even in communities that are closely integrated into the mainstream economy, imported foods are sometimes too expensive or non-nutritious and subsistence activities play an important part in

maintaining their food security, as well as their culture and identity. The general comment outlines the obligations of States to respect, protect, and fulfil the right to food and demands that food should never be used as an instrument of political or economic pressure.

30. Of special importance to the right to food of indigenous peoples is common article 1 of both human rights covenants, which recognizes the rights of all peoples to self-determination and the right to freely pursue their economic, social and cultural development. Moreover, paragraph 2 of that article also stipulates that in no case may a people be deprived of its own means of subsistence. The prohibition of discrimination, contained in article 2 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, is also of crucial importance for indigenous peoples. Non-discrimination sometimes requires affirmative action and measures in favour of indigenous peoples to compensate or redress traditional imbalances and marginalization. Other human rights instruments protecting women and children are also relevant to indigenous peoples. Control over and preservation of plant and animal genetic resources is today crucial for the economic interests of indigenous peoples and their long-term food security. Article 8 of the Convention on Biological Diversity in conjunction with the International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture provide a legal framework for the protection of those rights.

C. A framework for the right to food of indigenous peoples

31. The Special Rapporteur believes that the right to food of indigenous peoples can be understood within the framework laid out by the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights that requires States to respect, protect and fulfil the right to food of all members of their population. This implies that the right to food is not only a positive right, it is also a negative right that aims to prevent violations of indigenous people's existing access to food.

The obligation to respect

32. The obligation to respect the right to food requires that Governments refrain from taking any action that would negatively affect peoples' existing right to food. This entails refraining from acts such as dispossessing or displacing people from their land, where their land is their primary means of subsistence. It also means refraining from realizing development projects that may obstruct or destroy traditional access to subsistence resources, such as hunting or fishing, where this constitutes indigenous peoples' main means of feeding themselves. It also means that Governments must never engage in killings and repressive actions against indigenous peoples, where they are engaged in peaceful protest to protect their right to food, land and resources.

The obligation to protect

33. The obligation to protect the right to food requires Governments to ensure that third parties (such as powerful landowners or corporations) do not take any actions that negatively affect indigenous peoples' right to food. This means that Governments must regulate or control powerful third parties to prevent abuses of the right to food of indigenous peoples. Third parties should be prevented from

displacing indigenous peoples from their lands and resources. In cases where a Government grants concessions to corporations for the exploitation of resources on indigenous lands, it should adhere to the principle of free, prior and informed consent of indigenous peoples to ensure that they agree to and benefit from the exploitation of their resources and that their food security is not threatened. This requires also to ensure mitigating the human and ecological costs of environmentally damaging projects, such as gold mining, to ensure that traditional food, water, and other subsistence resources are not destroyed or poisoned.

The obligation to fulfil (facilitate and provide)

34. The obligation to fulfil the right to food requires Governments to take steps to address the marginalization, hunger and poverty of indigenous communities, with respect to indigenous peoples' own priorities, in order to ensure their integrity and cultural survival. This obligation is made up of two positive obligations — the obligations to *facilitate* and the obligation to *provide*. The key obligation to facilitate indigenous peoples' right to food requires Governments to take positive actions to facilitate the capacity of indigenous communities to feed themselves, such as formally recognizing and demarcating indigenous territories to enable them to carry out subsistence activities. Governments also have an obligation to respect the right of indigenous peoples to determine how best to improve their food security and to pursue their own priorities for development. Governments are always required to prevent starvation and ensure access to food, by facilitating the provision of marketed food where necessary and providing emergency food in situations of crisis. The obligation to fulfil also includes an immediate obligation to take action against discrimination against indigenous peoples in terms access to land, employment and other productive resources. This requires not only overturning de jure legal institutions of discrimination, but also addressing de facto discrimination against indigenous peoples that contributes to their hunger and malnutrition.

IV. The responsibilities of international organizations concerning the right to food

35. The mandate of the Special Rapporteur requires that he bring "emerging issues" related to the right to food to the attention of the Commission on Human Rights. One key issue currently being debated by the international human rights community is the issue of the human rights responsibilities of international organizations. The Commission has called on treaty bodies and special procedures to take account of its resolution 2005/17 on globalization and human rights that affirms the need for multilateral institutions to recognize, respect and protect all human rights.

36. The Special Rapporteur concurs with the Commission on Human Rights that it is essential to examine the issue of the human rights responsibilities of international organizations, such as the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and WTO. Although the primary responsibility for human rights always rests with the national Government, in the current climate of globalization and strong international interdependence the a national Government is not always able to protect its citizens from the impacts of decisions taken by other actors. As he argued in his report to the

Commission, in an increasingly globalized and integrated world, the power of nation States is often eclipsed by other actors, such as more powerful States, multinational corporations or international organizations. Just as human rights were designed to regulate the power of the nation State over its citizens, it is now time to extend the traditional boundaries of human rights to regulate the power of these other international actors. In his previous reports, the Special Rapporteur addressed two important issues in this regard. The first was the human rights responsibilities of non-State actors, such as transnational corporations (E/CN.4/2004/10). The second was the issue of extraterritorial obligations (E/CN.4/2005/47) — the human rights obligations of Governments towards people living outside of its own territory to ensure that their policies do not contribute to human rights violations in other countries.

37. In the present report, the Special Rapporteur is examining the third issue: intergovernmental responsibilities in the field of human rights of multilateral inter-State organizations such as IMF, the World Bank and WTO. Given the powerful role that these organizations play in determining economic policies, particularly in countries in the South, these organizations can have an important impact on human rights. There is no doubt, for example, that the programmes of economic reform imposed by IMF and the World Bank on indebted countries have a profound and direct influence on the situation of the right to food and food security in many countries. However, it is often argued that as these organizations are intergovernmentall organizations directed by Governments, they have no direct responsibilities in relation to human rights, including the right to food. Some authors think, for example, that WTO is merely a mechanism for negotiation between States and that Governments of member States are themselves accountable for all the rules and actions of WTO. Others again think that organizations such as the World Bank and IMF, despite having Governments on their executive councils, still take autonomous actions and that it is important to consider the direct responsibilities of intergovernmental organizations as institutions in themselves. The Special Rapporteur is convinced that with power must come responsibility. Therefore, as the Special Rapporteurs of the Subcommission for the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights J. Oloka-Onyango and Deepika Udagama have stated:

> "there is need for a systematic elaboration of the manner in which MLIs (multilaterall institutions) are bound by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenants and other human rights instruments. In short, there is a need for a *restatement* or codification of the law, in its applicability to MLIs."[22]

38. Much work is currently being done by academic institutions and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to better understand the definition and content of these responsibilities of international organizations in relation to human rights, some of which focusing on the right to food. This includes studies by the International Federation of Human Rights Leagues,[23] 3D — Trade — Human Rights — Equitable Economy and FORUM-ASIA,[24] Foodfirst Information and Action network (FIAN),[25] and by many academics, including S. I. Skogly,[26] A. Clapham,[27] M. Darrow[28] and B. Ghazi,[29] as well as the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights[30] and the Subcommission for the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights.[31]

39. This section first examines some key ways in which international organizations can have an impact on the right to food. It then outlines a legal framework for the responsibilities of international organizations and presents a typology of the obligations of international organizations *to respect*, *protect*, and *support the fulfilment of* the right to food.

A. Key impacts of international organizations on the right to food

40. The activities of the World Bank, IMF and WTO are in very different ways intimately related to policymaking as well as development projects, particularly in developing countries.

41. Many NGOs and civil society organizations have documented violations of the right to food that have occurred in the context of programmes and projects funded by the World Bank.[32] Typical cases include large development projects involving the constructions of dams in areas occupied by minorities or indigenous peoples who are forcibly displaced without due process and compensation. Other examples include projects financed by the World Bank in the mining or water infrastructure sectors that clearly carry adverse consequences for the human rights and even open violations of the indigenous' rights to their land, food and water. For example, the Kedung Ombo Project for a dam construction in Indonesia that started in 1985 with a loan approved by the World Bank and was completed in 1989, reportedly involved forced displacement without compensation and other related abuses. This project allegedly involved the displacement of nearly 12,000 people who lost their land and their means of subsistence as a result thereof. Another example is the implementation of a coal-mining project in Jharkjhand, India, funded by the World Bank, which led to important involuntary resettlements and the destruction of many houses and sources of livelihood. In this case, despite clear recommendations made by the World Bank's own Inspection Panel in November 2002, the affected people had still not been adequately compensated and rehabilitated.[33]

42. The far-reaching policies of structural adjustment and poverty reduction strategies encouraged by the World Bank and IMF have significant impacts on the capacity of the nation State to meet its obligations in ensuring the right to food. Many NGOs and civil society organizations claim that the economic policies advocated by the World Bank and IMF through programmes such as structural adjustment programmes or poverty reduction strategies have had negative impacts on the right to food of large sections of the populations of many countries, particularly in Africa, but also in Asia and Latin America. Far from improving food security for the most vulnerable populations, these programmes have often resulted in a deterioration of food security among the poorest. The strong advocacy pursued by the World Bank and IMF for the drastic reduction of public spending, the privatization of public enterprises, trade liberalization and the flexibilization of financial, labour and land markets has had negative impacts on the right to food and other economic, social and cultural rights. One study on India, for example, suggests that when in July 1991 the Government introduced the budgetary reforms advocated by IMF, the resulting cuts in spending affected subsidies for staples and basic foodstuffs that supported the poorest. With the price of rice rising by 50 per cent and the revenue of workers falling dramatically, the three months following the introduction of the reform saw at least 73 deaths by starvation reported in the State of Andra Pradesh.[34] In Zambia, after a programme of rapid structural adjustment

was introduced in the 1990s, an evaluation made by IMF itself recognized that the liberalization in agriculture had caused hardship for poor Zambians, with maize consumption falling by 20 per cent between 1990 and 1997 as the poorest could not afford enough to eat.[35] In most cases, the World Bank and IMF have not required that prior to introducing rapid adjustment measures safety nets be put in place that would support the poorest and most vulnerable populations, an omission which has resulted in the cases of starvation deaths in India and severe malnourishment in Zambia described above.

43. The rules of WTO, particularly the rules on trade in agriculture, also have a significant impact on the policies that Governments can choose in terms of maintaining their food security (see E/CN.4/2004/10, para. 14-34).[36] Much of the trade liberalization so far undertaken in agriculture, particularly in developing countries, has been required under IMF and World Bank programmes, and not WTO. Nonetheless, WTO has had an important impact through the way it "locks in" and formalizes liberalization measures, leaving countries unable to reverse measures that might have significant negative impacts on food insecurity and malnutrition. The widely recognized inequities in the current WTO rules on agriculture, detailed in reports such as *Rigged Rules and Double Standards* published by Oxfam[37] also severely affect small farmers and put developing countries at a serious disadvantage compared to developed countries.[38] The Special Rapporteur is also concerned that current proposals within WTO on "disciplining" humanitarian aid may have serious implications for the provision of free emergency food aid in future emergencies, as he already outlined in his statement to the press made on 19 July 2005. The Special Rapporteur believes that food aid provided for humanitarian purposes and distributed by humanitarian organizations such as WFP must be excluded from the WTO negotiations under the Doha Round.

B. The legal framework: international organizations are legal persons with rights and duties, including direct responsibilities concerning the right to food

44. There is no question today that international organizations such as the World Bank, IMF and WTO have legal personality under international law. In its advisory opinion on *Reparation for Injuries Suffered in the Service of the United Nations*, the International Court of Justice, in 1949, interpreted an international organization as a subject of international law and capable of possessing international rights and duties. As subjects of international law, international organizations are thus bound by any obligations incumbent upon them under general rules of international law, under their constitutions or under international agreements to which they are parties.[39] For the Special Rapporteur, it is clear that international law is binding on international organizations such as the World Bank, IMF and WTO, including as concerns the human right to food.

45. In many instances, international organizations, particularly IMF and the World Bank, have disputed their responsibilities towards human rights, on the ground of three main arguments. First, they argue that they are multilateral organizations, directed to take action by Governments and therefore do not have autonomous responsibilities in relation to human rights. However, it is clear that these organizations are not only driven by the decisions of their member States, as they

have important autonomous decision-making powers. The World Bank is governed by a Board of Governors representing all member States, but its day-to-day business is run by a Board of Executive Directors, with five out of 24 members appointed by the largest shareholders (the United States being the largest with over 15 per cent of shares, giving it a practical veto power in decision-making at the Bank). Although it has been claimed that the World Bank Group is "owned by its shareholders", the fact that the Board of Executive Directors and the largest shareholders control the activities of the organization suggests that it does take autonomous decisions in its actions. Similarly, although the highest governing body in IMF is the Board of Directors, which represents the whole membership, daily management rests with an Executive Board and autonomous decisions can also be taken by this Executive Board.

46. In WTO, on the other hand, it is clear that most decisions are taken by the Ministerial Conference or the General Council, both made up of Member States. For this reason it has often been characterized as a "member-driven" consensus-based organization, driven in other words by Governments, with no separate legal identity of its own.[40] But WTO does also have its own organs and agents through which it operates. The secretariat, for example, has a large margin of discretion to facilitate the implementation, administration and operation of the agreements, and to this end is engaged in wide-ranging technical assistance projects. Some of its organs, such as the Dispute Settlement Body (DSB) are also required to achieve decisions, including interpretations of WTO law, that are essential to the organization. As an international organization, WTO should thus also be bound by international human rights, including the right to food.

47. Secondly, according to the principle that international organizations have only rights and duties commensurate to their functions and powers,[41] the World Bank and IMF have argued that their constitutive instruments (Articles of Agreement) preclude them from using political considerations in their activities. However, the suggestion that this precludes them from dealing directly with human rights is not well founded. Relevant provisions (for instance Article IV, section 10, of the Articles of Agreement of the Bank) can be interpreted so as to allow those institutions to integrate human rights considerations into their activities.[42] Furthermore, in accordance with the same principle of functional legal personality, the World Bank, IMF and WTO all carry out activities and perform functions that have an important, and sometimes crucial, influence on the realization of the right to food and other rights in member States. In carrying out those functions these organizations should therefore be bound to ensure respect for human rights, including the right to food, in a way commensurate to their power.

48. Lastly, IMF and the World Bank have argued that they do not have responsibilities in the field of human rights because they are organizations and not States, and in that capacity have not ratified the respective human rights treaties.[43] It would therefore follow that as IMF, the World Bank and WTO have not ratified the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, they would not be bound by obligations in respect to the right to adequate food. However, such an argument overlooks the widely recognized view that human rights find their source not only in treaties but also in customary international law. The obligation to realize the right to adequate food has become today part of customary international law, given the almost universal ratification of treaties that contain it (in particular the International Covenant and the Convention on the Rights of the Child) and the

constant practice of States in reaffirming the right to food and the fundamental right to be free from hunger at the World Food Summits in 1996 and 2002 and other international conferences, as well as in the General Assembly and the Commission on Human Rights.[44] There is no reason to assume that international economic organizations are not bound by general international law on the right to food and other human rights. Furthermore, as in the case of the European Union, international organizations are bound by general principles of law recognized by civilized nations, which can be drawn from national legal systems.[45] Many national constitutions recognize the right to food or require the interpretation of their provisions to be in accordance with international human rights law where the right to food is fully recognized. Finally, most member States of these international economic organizations have ratified at least one human rights treaty in which the right to food is contained. Clearly, international organizations cannot be free to do what their constituents are not permitted to do.

C. A framework for the right to food responsibilities of international organizations

49. In its resolution 2005/17 on globalization and human rights, the Commission on Human Rights affirmed the need for multilateral institutions "to recognize, respect and protect all human rights". In their final report, the Special Rapporteurs of the Subcommission for the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights J. Oloka-Onyango and Deepika Udagama noted that "reiteration of the legal obligation of international organizations such as the WTO, the World Bank and the IMF is deemed necessary in order to emphasize the point that these institutions must, at a minimum, *recognize, respect, and protect* human rights" (E/CN.4/Sub.2/2003/14, para. 39). However, as many others have suggested, these organizations would also have obligations to positively promote and assist States in their efforts to protect and realize the right to adequate food of their populations.[46] As the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights has argued:

> "international organizations ... have a strong and continuous responsibility to take whatever measures they can to assist governments to act in ways which are compatible with their human rights obligations and to seek to devise policies and programmes which promote respect for those rights. It is particularly important to emphasize that the realms of trade, finance and investment are in no way exempt from these general principles and that the international organizations with specific responsibilities in those areas should play a positive and constructive role in relation to human rights."[47]

50. The Special Rapporteur suggests that in order to fully comply with their obligations under the right to food, international organizations must *respect*, *protect* and *support the fulfilment* of the right to food by their member States.

The obligation to respect

51. The obligation to respect is a minimum obligation, which requires international organizations to ensure that their advice, policies and practices do not lead to violations of the right to food.[48] This means that, at least with regard to the World Bank and IMF, international organizations should be have minimum negative obligations to respect or not to do harm in relation to the realization of the right to

food. This prohibition of doing harm seems to be universally recognized. This means that these organizations should not promote "development" projects that would result in forced displacement or the destruction of sources of livelihood, especially in cases without proper compensation and rehabilitation for the affected populations. It also means that actions and decisions of the World Bank, IMF and WTO should not increase people's food insecurity in a given country, including the poorest people. Adjustment measures should not be implemented without carrying out impact studies for vulnerable groups, and putting in place necessary safety nets in advance, to ensure that they will not result in starvation or chronic malnutrition. WTO would also have to take due account of the human rights obligations of its members and should advise against the adoption of trade policies that may have negative impacts on the right to food.

The obligation to protect

52. The obligation to protect requires international organizations to ensure that their partners, whether states or private actors, including transnational corporations, do not violate the right to food, including in cases where concessions and contracts are granted, or in common projects that could threaten people's livelihoods and food security. Those organs of WTO that have decision-making power, such as the DSB, should protect the right to food in judicial decisions, and should ensure that interpretations of WTO law are compatible with the human rights obligations of its member States regarding the right to food.

The obligation to support the fulfilment

53. The obligation to support the fulfilment of the right to food requires that international organizations facilitate the realization of the right to food and help to provide necessary assistance when required for all people, indigenous, minorities and vulnerable groups. This should include facilitating the capacity of all people to feed themselves, as well as helping to ensure emergency support when they cannot feed themselves for reasons beyond their control. In developing countries, where up to 80 per cent of the population may depend on agriculture, small-scale agriculture should form the basis of food security strategies, as non-agricultural employment is often inadequate to absorb all those forced out of agriculture. WTO should also ensure that trade rules adopted are raising the standard of living in all countries, and not permit the persistence of current inequities in rules on agricultural trade.

V. Conclusions and recommendations

54. **The persistence of hunger and extreme poverty across the world is not inevitable and is not acceptable. All Governments, individually and in cooperation with others, have a duty to respect, protect and fulfil the right to adequate food of all peoples.**

55. **The Special Rapporteur would make the following recommendations:**

(a) **All Governments should take urgent action to halt increases in global undernourishment around the world. As the Executive Director of the World Food Programme, Mr. James T. Morris, reiterated in his speech on Africa's food crises to the Security Council on 30 June 2005, "In 2000, at the**

Millennium Summit, every nation here made just that pledge — to halve hunger and poverty. It is time we begin to show progress."

(b) All Governments should respond rapidly to the food crises currently occurring across Africa. While national Governments have the primary obligation to ensure the right to food of their populations, they also have an obligation to seek international assistance and cooperation when they have insufficient resources, and other States have an obligation, depending on the availability of their resources, to facilitate the realization of the right to food through development cooperation and emergency aid.

(c) Food security should be ensured as a human right, and not left up to the vagaries of the market system that cannot address hunger in times of emergency. Emergency food aid should be excluded from market principles and provided free of charge.

(d) All Governments should adopt the United Nations declaration on the rights of indigenous peoples, and ensure that indigenous peoples have access to justice at national and international levels for violations of their right to food.

(e) All Governments should recognize that indigenous peoples suffer from disproportionately high levels of hunger and malnutrition and take special action to combat the causes, particularly the pervasive discrimination against indigenous peoples.

(f) All Governments should respect, protect and fulfil the right to food of their indigenous populations, including by recognizing their right to land, resources and traditional subsistence activities, their intellectual property rights over their genetic and knowledge resources and their right to appropriate development that does not result in further marginalization, exploitation, poverty or hunger. Governments should recognize that the right to food is not only a positive right, but also a negative right that requires Governments to refrain from taking actions that negatively affect indigenous people's existing access to food, such as the displacement, dispossession, or the destruction of traditional access to subsistence resources.

(g) International organizations, such as the World Bank, IMF and WTO should recognize that they do have binding responsibilities towards human rights, including the right to food. With power must come responsibility. International organizations should recognize their minimum obligation to refrain from promoting policies or projects that negatively impact the right to food, particularly where no social safety nets are implemented. They should also recognize positive obligations to protect, by ensuring that partners do not violate the right to food in the implementation of common projects, and to support Governments in the fulfilment of the right to food.

(h) Finally, it is unacceptable that the world, which is richer than ever before, can let five million infant children die every year from malnutrition and related diseases, and that 852 million people do not get enough to eat every day. The right to food is a human right.

Notes

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[16] See, on this subject, "Learning the lessons of traditional knowledge: broadening the base of intellectual property", *WIPO Magazine*, No. 1 (January-February 2004), pp. 14-17.

[17] See http://www.lifeinitiative.net/docs/PALissue1Nov04.pdf.

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[19] *Adong bin Kuwau v. State of Johor*.

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[41] See its general comments Nos. 3, 12 and 15. See also the Committee's statement to the Third Ministerial Conference of the World Trade Organization in 1999 and its statement on Globalization and Economic, Social and Cultural Rights made in May 1998 (E/C.12/1999/9).

[42] See E/CN.4/Sub.2/2000/13, E/CN.4/Sub.2/2001/10, E/CN.4/Sub.2/2003/14.

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[55] Declaration of the World Food Summit 1996, and "An International Alliance Against Hunger": Declaration of the World Food Summit: five years later, 2002. In both cases the United States of America formulated reservations to the recognition of the right to food as a legal right, but this only can make that country a persistent objector and does not preclude the formation of the right to food as a customary norm.

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Item 73 (a) of the provisional agenda*
Human rights questions: implementation of human rights instruments

Equitable geographical distribution in the membership of the human rights treaty bodies

Analysis of the membership of the human rights treaty bodies since 1970

Report of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights**

Summary

The General Assembly, in its resolution 59/181, requested the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights to submit to the General Assembly at its sixtieth session concrete recommendations on the implementation of the resolution, including the possible establishment of quota distribution systems by geographical region for the election of the members of the treaty bodies. This report, submitted in accordance with that request, provides information on the system for the election of treaty body members, along with an analysis of the past and present membership of each treaty body by geographical region.

* A/60/150.
** This document is submitted late so as to include the most up-to-date information possible.

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I. Introduction

1. In resolution 59/181, the General Assembly recommended that, in considering whether a quota system for the election of the treaty body members should be adopted, each regional group should be assigned "a quota of membership of each treaty body in equivalent proportion to the number of States parties to the instrument that it represents". The following analysis presents a statistical comparison of the composition of each treaty body following each election of members and the number of States parties to each treaty by regional group since 1970. It does not examine other factors, such as the number of nominations received per regional group and the number of State party representatives voting in elections, which influence the outcome of the elections.

2. Six of the seven core international human rights treaties create a committee of independent experts to monitor implementation of the treaty by States parties:

- The Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (CERD) has monitored implementation of the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination since 1970.
- The Human Rights Committee (HRC), has monitored implementation of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights since 1977.
- The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) has monitored implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women since 1982.
- The Committee against Torture (CAT) has monitored implementation of the Convention against Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (Convention against Torture) since 1987.
- The Committee on the Rights of the Child (CRC) has, since 1991, monitored implementation of the Convention on the Rights of the Child and, since 2002, its two Optional Protocols.
- The Committee on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (CMW), which held its first session in March 2004, monitors implementation of the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families.

3. The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights does not create a treaty body, but gives the Economic and Social Council a general mandate to monitor implementation of the Covenant by States parties and United Nations specialized agencies through consideration of regular reports. In 1978, the Council established a Sessional Working Group of Governmental Experts on the Implementation of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, to assist it in considering the reports submitted by States parties (decision 1978/10). The composition of the Sessional Working Group was altered in 1982 (resolution 1982/33) and, in 1987, it was reconstituted according to the treaty body model and renamed the "Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights" (CESCR) (resolution 1985/17). The Committee, which first met in 1987, is treated as a treaty body.

4. The Optional Protocol to the Convention against Torture, which is not yet in force, envisages the creation of an additional body, the "Subcommittee on Prevention", to undertake visits to places of detention in States parties.

II. The provisions of the treaties relating to election of members of the treaty bodies

5. The provisions of the treaties relating to the election of treaty body members are: article 8, International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination; articles 28-34, International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights; article 17, Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women; article 17, Convention against Torture; article 43, Convention on the Rights of the Child; and article 72, International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families. Elections of members of CESCR are governed by the terms of resolution 1985/17.

6. In accordance with the provisions of the relevant treaty, each committee is composed of independent experts, ranging in number from 10 to 23 (see table 1), who are nominated and elected for fixed, renewable terms of four years by States parties from among their nationals. In order to avoid the entire membership changing at any one election, the terms of half of the members elected at the first elections are limited to two years. Subsequent elections occur every two years. The treaties impose no limit on the number of times a member's term may be renewed.

Table 1
Composition of the human rights treaty bodies

Treaty body	*Original number of members*	*Increased to*	*Number of States parties required for increase*
CERD	18	—	—
HRC	18	—	—
CESCR	18	—	—
CEDAW	18	23	35[a]
CAT	10	—	—
CRC	10	18[b]	—
CMW	10	14	41

[a] Since, at the time of the first meeting of States parties to the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, there were already 35 States parties, the meeting elected 23 members to the Committee for its first session.

[b] Amendment to article 43 (2) of the Convention, approved by the General Assembly in resolution 50/155, which entered into force on 18 November 2002 upon acceptance by two thirds of the States parties.

A. Qualifications for nomination as members

7. The provisions of the treaties (or, in the case of CESCR, the relevant Council resolution) vary with regard to the qualifications expected of nominees. Members

are generally required to be of recognized competence (in the field of human rights) and of high moral standing and acknowledged impartiality (although this is not explicitly stated in the case of CESCR). Nominees must be nationals of a State party to the relevant treaty, but members of all treaty bodies serve in their personal capacity.

B. Criteria for election of members

8. The treaties set out criteria to guide States parties when voting for members. In all cases, consideration must be given to equitable geographical distribution. All treaties restrict nominations to one nominee per State party, except the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights which allows two nominations per State but states that the Committee may not include more than one national of the same State (art. 31 (1)).

9. The treaties also set out additional considerations to be taken into account in electing treaty body members, including representation of the "principal legal systems" (CERD, CEDAW, CRC), "the different forms of social and legal systems" (CESCR), "the different forms of civilization" (CERD, CEDAW), "different forms of civilization and legal systems of States parties", or the "usefulness of legal experience" (HRC, CAT). The Optional Protocol to the Convention against Torture contains very specific requirements for members of the Subcommittee on Prevention, including "proven professional experience in the field of the administration of justice, in particular criminal law, prison or police administration, or in the various fields relevant to the treatment of persons deprived of their liberty" (art. 5 (2)).

10. No treaty in force explicitly requires "gender balance" with regard to the election of experts and no quota system is in operation for any of the treaty bodies to address gender balance. In the composition of the Subcommittee on Prevention, due consideration will have to be given to "balanced gender representation on the basis of the principles of equality and non-discrimination" (art. 5 (4)).

C. Conduct of elections

11. The election of members of all treaty bodies, except CESCR, takes place at a biennial meeting of States parties to the treaty concerned. Election is by secret ballot.

D. Replacement of members

12. All treaties contain provision for the replacement of any members who resign or die before the end of their term. In most cases, the State party that nominated the former member appoints another expert from among its nationals to fill the vacancy for the remainder of the term, subject in certain cases to the approval of the relevant committee (CERD, CEDAW, CRC and CMW) or other States parties (CAT). This procedure has no impact on the existing geographical distribution of the committee concerned. Article 34 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights requires vacancies on the Human Rights Committee to result in a new round of

nominations and elections, provided the term still has at least six months to run. This may result in a change in the geographical composition of the Committee. In practice, on the nine occasions that members of the Human Rights Committee have been replaced, the nationality of the member changed once, although the replacement member was from the same regional group.

III. The five informal regional groups

13. According to an unofficial list, drawn up on the basis of the practice of States in elections at the General Assembly (see annex I), the present composition of the regional groups recognized by the General Assembly is:

African States	53 States
Asian States	52 States
Eastern European States	22 States
Latin American and Caribbean States	33 States
Western European and other States	29 States
Not members of a regional group	2 States
Total	191 States

The practice of certain States with regard to regional groups differs for the purposes of elections and for other functions. Thus, for the purpose of elections, Turkey votes with the Western European group although it is also a member of the Asian group.

14. The Cook Islands, the Holy See and Niue are parties to one or more of the treaties but are not members of the United Nations.

IV. Past and present membership of the treaty bodies

15. In the following analysis of past and present membership of the treaty bodies, the number of individuals who have served as members of the treaty bodies is distinguished from the number of terms that have been served by those individuals. There is no restriction on the number of terms an individual may serve as a member, and many individual members have served consecutive terms. Statistical analysis based on the individual members of the treaty bodies gives one view of the geographical distribution of seats on the treaty bodies. However, since States parties meet at two-year intervals to elect half of the members of each committee for four-year terms, the composition of each committee changes every two years. Analysis of the composition of the treaty bodies by regional group based on these biennial changes allows a comparison to be made with the number of States parties from each region at the time of each biennial election.

A. Individual membership of the treaty bodies since 1970

16. Since 1970, a total of 410 individuals, from 106 States, have served as members of the treaty bodies:

CERD	94 individuals from 47 States
HRC	79 individuals from 50 States
CEDAW	109 individuals from 63 States
CAT	32 individuals from 25 States
CESCR	47 individuals from 41 States
CRC	39 individuals from 34 States
CMW	10 individuals from 10 States

A number of individuals have served on more than one treaty body.

1. Regional balance

17. Of the 410 individuals who have been elected as treaty body members, 86 have come from the African region, 76 from Asia, 60 from Eastern Europe, 77 from Latin America and the Caribbean and 111 from the Western European group (see table 2).

Table 2
Individual treaty body members since 1970, by regional group (with percentage of total)

Treaty body	*Africa*	*Asia*	*Eastern Europe*	*Latin America*	*Western Europe*	*Total*
CERD	19 (20%)	15 (16%)	20 (21%)	13 (14%)	27 (29%)	94
HRC	11 (14%)	10 (13%)	11 (14%)	15 (19%)	32 (40%)	79
CEDAW	23 (21%)	26 (24%)	11 (10%)	25 (23%)	24 (22%)	109
CAT	6 (19%)	6 (19%)	5 (15%)	6 (19%)	9 (28%)	32
CESCR	13 (28%)	9 (19%)	10 (21%)	7 (15%)	8 (17%)	47
CRC	11 (28%)	8 (21%)	2 (5%)	7 (18%)	11 (28%)	39
CMW	3 (30%)	2 (20%)	1 (10%)	4 (40%)	0	10
Total	**86 (21%)**	**76 (19%)**	**60 (17%)**	**77 (19%)**	**111 (27%)**	**410**

18. These individuals have served a total of 623 terms as members of the various committees. Of the 106 States whose nationals have served as members, one quarter has seen their nationals serve no more than two terms. The average number of terms served per nationality is a little under 6 terms (5.8 terms). Nationals of 15 States have served more than twice the average number of terms, and the nationals of one State have collectively served 31 terms as treaty body members.

19. In total, nationals from Asia have served 21 per cent of treaty body terms, nationals from Africa and from Latin America and the Caribbean have served 19 per cent of terms, nationals from Eastern Europe 14 per cent and nationals from Western Europe and other States have served 28 per cent of terms. The number of terms served by each regional group for each committee is presented below, along with the percentage of the total terms served:

Table 3
Terms served on the treaty bodies since 1970, by regional group (with percentage of total)

Treaty body	*Africa*	*Asia*	*Eastern Europe*	*Latin America*	*Western Europe*	*Total*
CERD	31 (19%)	36 (22%)	26.5 (16%)	29 (18%)	39.5 (24%)	162
HRC	24 (18%)	21 (16%)	18.5 (14%)	24 (18%)	47.5 (35%)	135
CEDAW	31 (22%)	28.5 (21%)	14 (10%)	28 (20%)	36.5 (26%)	138
CAT	9 (20%)	6.5 (14%)	7 (16%)	7 (16%)	15.5 (34%)	45
CESCR	20 (22%)	15.5 (17%)	15 (17%)	19.5 (22%)	20 (22%)	90
CRC	13.5 (28%)	8.5 (18%)	3 (6%)	9.5 (20%)	13.5 (28%)	48
CMW	1.5 (30%)	1 (20%)	0.5 (10%)	2 (40%)	0	5
Total	**130 (21%)**	**117 (19%)**	**84.5 (14%)**	**119 (19%)**	**172.5 (28%)**	**623**

2. Nationality of individual members

20. The 410 individuals who have served as treaty body members have been nationals of a total of 106 States. The total of nationalities of members by regional group (N) is shown in table 4 against the total States parties for each region (S):

Table 4
Nationalities represented as treaty body members and States parties, by regional group

	Africa		*Asia*		*Eastern Europe*		*Latin America*		*Western Europe*		*Total*	
Treaty body	*N*	*S*	*N*	*S*	*N*	*S*	*N*	*S*	*N*	*S*	*N*	*S*
CERD	12	49	8	40	8	22	7	30	12	29	47	170
HRC	7	51	9	26	7	22	9	28	18	27	50	154
CEDAW	15	51	11	46	8	22	13	33	16	28	63	180
CAT	8	41	4	27	4	22	5	22	8	28	29	140
CESCR	10	48	9	26	8	22	7	27	8	28	42	151
CRC	8	52	8	56	2	22	6	33	10	29	34	192
CMW	3	12	2	6	1	2	4	9	0	1	10	30
Total	**23**	**53**	**24**	**52**	**16**	**22**	**20**	**33**	**23**	**29**	**106**	**191**

21. Taking into account the number of States parties from each regional group that could nominate candidates, the proportion of all nationalities from within each group that have been elected as members of at least one of the treaty bodies is as follows:

Table 5
Distribution of nationalities from each regional group elected as members of the treaty bodies since 1970 (as percentage of total States parties)

Treaty body	*Africa*	*Asia*	*Eastern Europe*	*Latin America*	*Western Europe*	*Total*
CERD	24%	20%	9%	23%	41%	28%
HRC	14%	35%	32%	32%	66%	32%
CEDAW	29%	24%	26%	39%	57%	35%
CAT	20%	15%	18%	23%	29%	21%
CESCR	21%	35%	36%	26%	29%	28%
CRC	15%	14%	9%	18%	34%	17%
CMW	25%	33%	50%	44%	0%	33%
Total	**44%**	**46%**	**72%**	**60%**	**79%**	**55%**

22. In total, 44 per cent of African States, 46 per cent of Asian States, 72 per cent of Eastern European States, 60 per cent of Latin American and Caribbean States and 79 per cent of Western European and other States have had at least one of their nationals elected to one of the treaty bodies. The list of terms per State is presented in annex II. The degree of representation attainable for each treaty body depends on the length of time that the committee concerned has been in existence, the rate at which ratification by States occurs and the number of seats available on the committee.

3. Gender balance

23. With the exception of CEDAW, men have outnumbered women as treaty body members since 1970 by a factor of four to one. Of the 410 individuals who have been elected as members, 251 have been men and 159 have been women. Excluding CEDAW, there have been 53 female members of treaty bodies.

Table 6
Number of women and men elected as treaty body members since 1970

CERD	6 women (6%)	88 men (94%)
HRC	10 women (13%)	69 men (87%)
CEDAW	106 women (97%)	3 men (3%)
CAT	4 women (12%)	28 men (88%)
CESCR	9 women (19%)	38 men (81%)
CRC	22 women (56%)	17 men (44%)
CMW	2 women (20%)	8 men (80%)
Total excluding CEDAW	**53 women (18%)**	**248 men (82%)**
Total	**159 women (39%)**	**251 men (61%)**

B. Distribution of the regional groups in the membership of the treaty bodies

24. The charts presented in this section compare the composition of each committee following each election (new or re-elected members plus members with two years of their term remaining) with the number of States parties eligible to vote on the day of the elections by regional group. The source data is presented in annex III and full results are presented on the website of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (www.ohchr.org).

25. The following factors have been taken into account:

- Since the composition of each committee changes every two years, sampling is made at two-year intervals, immediately following each election.
- Since some individuals serve more than one term on a treaty body, the number of terms served are counted rather than the number of individuals elected.
- Some committees have increased in size as the number of ratifications has risen.
- The number of States parties eligible to vote at meeting of States parties, and the relative balance within each regional group and between regional groups, shifts constantly as more States ratify or accede to the treaties.

Special conditions apply in the case of CESCR, which is covered separately below.

26. Other factors may influence the outcome of elections. Thus, for example, the large number of nominations received from one regional group may make it more difficult for those candidates to gain sufficient votes from States parties from within their regional group compared with a region that has put forward a shorter list of candidates. Treaty body members are not elected to represent their region and States parties are not obliged to vote for candidates from their region. Such factors are not taken into account in the present analysis, which is purely statistical.

27. A statistical differential between the membership of each treaty body after each election and each regional group may be calculated in the following manner:

- The number of members from each regional group is expressed as a percentage of the total membership of the committee concerned.
- The number of States parties from each regional group eligible to vote is expressed as a percentage of the total number of States parties.
- The difference between these two percentages indicates the degree to which membership of a treaty body corresponds to the number of States parties from each regional group for each biennium.

28. A value of zero indicates a perfect correspondence between members and States parties from the region concerned. Positive values indicate that more members were elected than would be expected statistically on the basis of the number of States parties from each region. Conversely, negative values indicate that fewer members were elected than would be expected.

29. The scale of these values may be gauged by comparing the percentage difference with the percentage representing one member of the committee concerned: in a 10-member committee, one member equals 10 per cent of the total

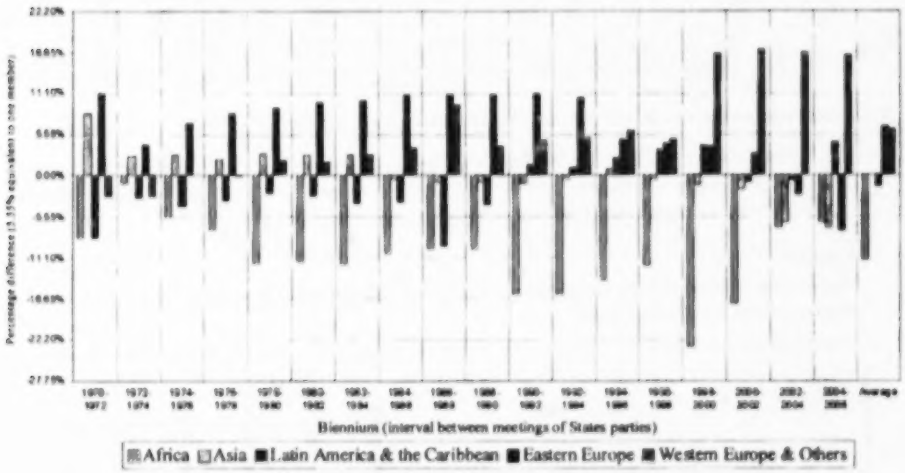
membership; in an 18-member committee, one member equals 5.55 per cent of the total membership; in a 23-member committee, one member equals 4.34 per cent of the total membership. The horizontal lines in the charts below indicate one member of the relevant committee in percentage terms. Given the limited membership of the committees, a perfect distribution of seats between regional groups in exact proportion to the number of States parties from each region may not always be possible since fractions of seats cannot be divided between regional groups.

1. Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination

30. On average, the distribution of seats on CERD shows both Eastern and Western European and other States with one member more, and African States with two members less, than would be statistically expected. Asian States have achieved a perfect average distribution.

Chart 1

Percentage difference between the number of members elected to CERD and the number of States parties from each region

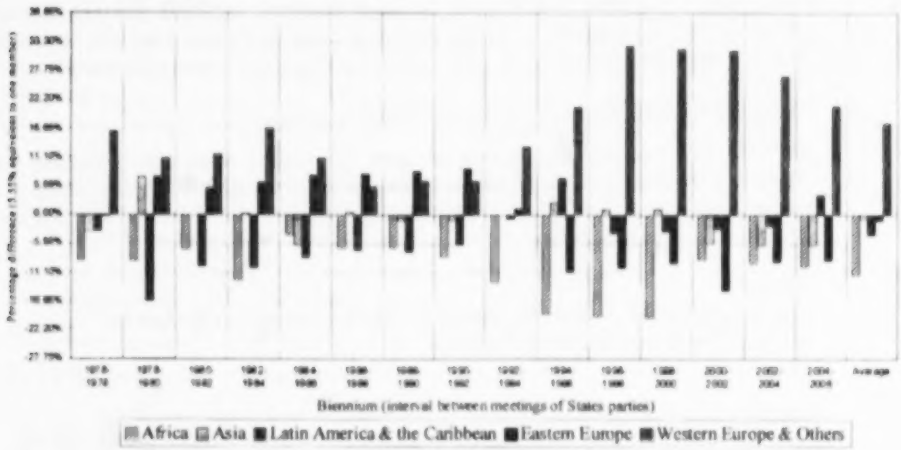


2. Human Rights Committee

31. On average, the distribution of seats in the Human Rights Committee shows Western Europe with three more members, and Africa with two less members, than would be expected statistically.

Chart 2

Percentage difference between the number of members elected to the Human Rights Committee and the number of States parties from each region

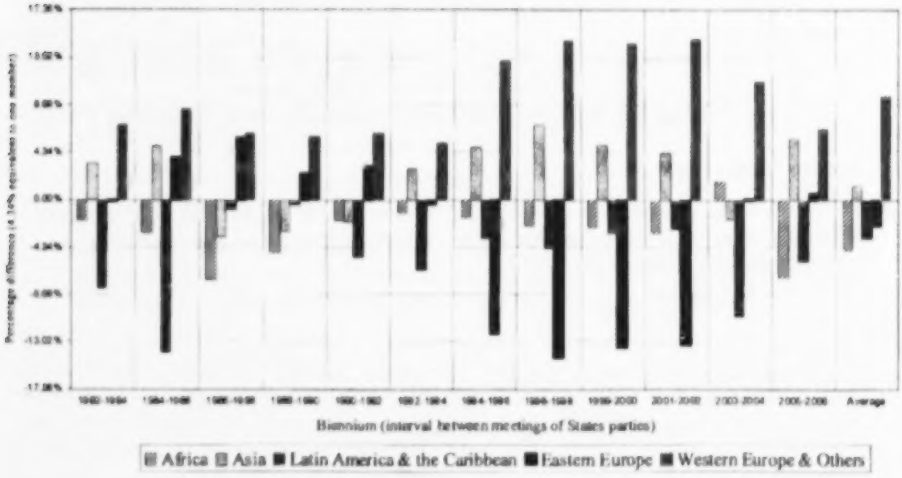


3. Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women

32. On average, the distribution of seats on CEDAW reveals Western Europe having two more members, and both Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean having one less member, than would be expected statistically.

Chart 3

Percentage difference between members elected to CEDAW and the number of States parties from each region

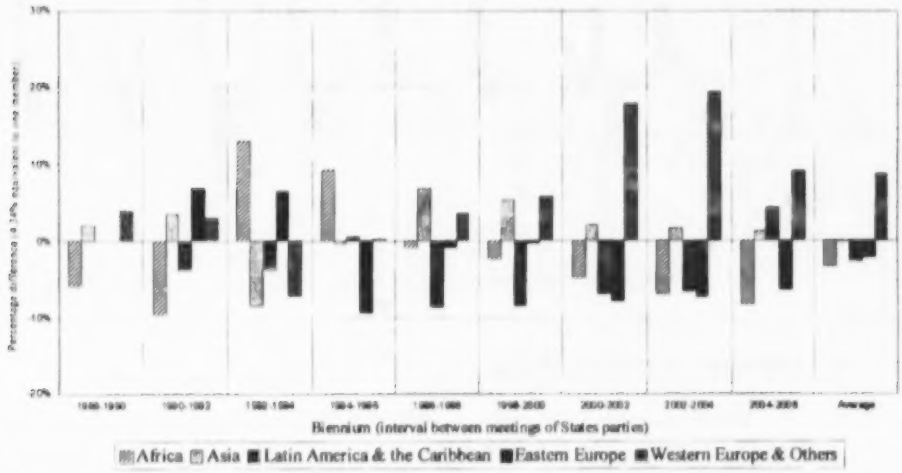


4. Committee against Torture

33. On average, Asia has achieved a perfect correspondence between the percentage of States parties and the percentage of members from each region in CAT. Between 2000 and 2004, Western European and other States had almost two more members than would be expected.

Chart 4

Percentage difference between the number of members elected to CAT and the number of States parties from each region

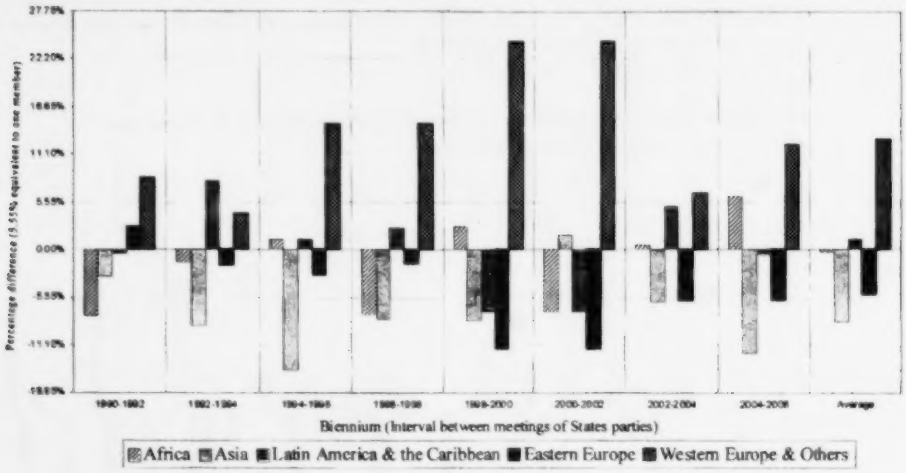


5. Committee on the Rights of the Child

34. On average, Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean have achieved a perfect correspondence between States parties and members of CRC, whereas Western Europe has had on average two more members, and Asia and Eastern Europe one less member, than would be expected statistically.

Chart 5

Percentage difference between the number of members elected to the CRC and the number of States parties from each region



6. Committee on Migrant Workers

35. The 10-member Committee on Migrant Workers has not been in existence long enough to allow clear conclusions to be drawn. Following the first elections, at which only 10 candidates were presented, Asia and Latin America and the Caribbean have more members and Africa and Eastern Europe have fewer members than would be expected statistically. No Western European and other States are parties to the Convention.

V. Election of members of the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the quota system

36. The procedure for the election of members of CESCR is not set out in the Covenant and differs in two respects from the equivalent procedures of the other treaty bodies:

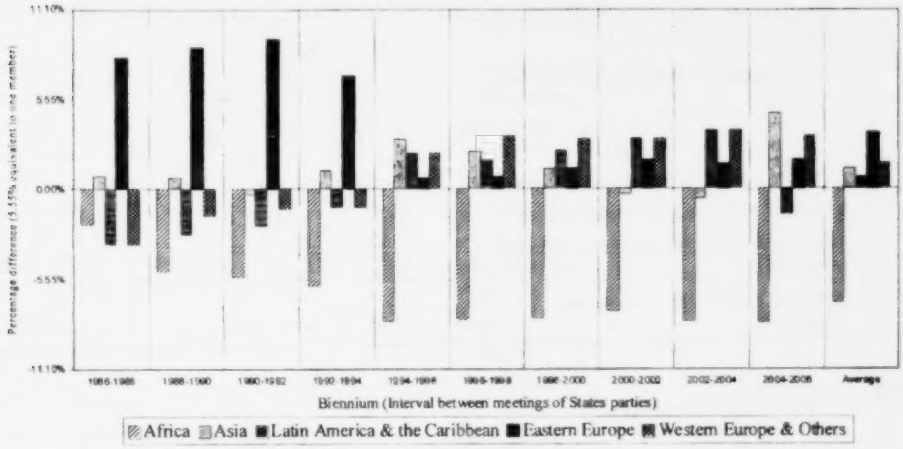
(a) Although candidates are nominated by States parties to the Covenant, members are not elected at a meeting of all States parties but are elected by the 53 members of the Economic and Social Council, by secret ballot;

(b) A quota system, as set out in Council resolution 1985/17, is in operation for the election of members which guarantees each regional group at least three members regardless of the number of States parties in each group. The three remaining positions are available to correct imbalances resulting from disproportionate ratification by regional groups.

37. Within the membership of CESCR, despite the quota system, Africa has been short by at least one member since 1989. On average, all other groups have been slightly overrepresented, but not to an extent that could be corrected.

Chart 6

Percentage difference between the number of members elected to CESCR and the number of States parties from each region (quota system in operation)



38. The CESCR quota system has not achieved equitable distribution of seats for African States and will require adjustment to be able to ensure an equitable distribution between all regional groups as the Covenant progresses towards universal ratification. The quota system allocates three seats to each regional group, leaving only three to correct imbalances. The Eastern European Group (which has already universally ratified the Covenant) has less than half as many States parties to the Covenant as the African Group.

Table 7
The CESCR quota system and universal ratification of the Covenant

	Africa	*Asia*	*Latin America*	*Eastern Europe*	*Western Europe*	*Total*
Number of States parties	48	26	22	27	28	151
Percentage of total States parties	32%	17%	15%	18%	19%	n.a.
Expected allocation on the basis of current percentage of States parties	6 (5.8)	3 (3.1)	3 (2.7)	3 (3.2)	3 (3.4)	18
Allocation guaranteed by quota system	3	3	3	3	3	18 — including 3 for correction
Current allocation following 2004 election	4	4	3	3	4	18
Number of States per regional group	53	52	22	33	29	191
Percentage of States parties on universal ratification	28%	28%	12%	17%	15%	n.a.
Expected allocation on universal ratification	5	5	2	3	3	18

VI. Conclusion

39. Under the terms of the six core human rights treaties that establish a treaty body, the modalities for the election of treaty body members is a matter for the States parties. The General Assembly may wish to forward the present report to the chairperson of the next meeting of States parties of each treaty. The resolution, and the present report, will also be provided to the chairperson of the seventeenth meeting of chairpersons of human rights treaty bodies as he prepares the agenda of the eighteenth meeting, to be held in June 2006.

Annex I

Regional Groups

The statistics contained in the present report were calculated on the basis of the following regional groups. Membership of the regional groups is not fixed and this list does not constitute official recognition of the composition of these groups.

African States (53 States)

Algeria
Angola
Benin
Botswana
Burkina Faso
Burundi
Cameroon
Cape Verde
Central African Republic
Chad
Comoros
Congo
Côte d'Ivoire
Democratic Republic of the Congo
Djibouti
Egypt
Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea
Ethiopia
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritania
Mauritius
Morocco
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Africa
Sudan
Swaziland
Togo
Tunisia
Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia
Zimbabwe

Asian States (52 States)

Afghanistan
Bahrain
Bangladesh
Bhutan
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
China
Cyprus
Democratic People's Republic of Korea
Fiji
India
Indonesia
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Iraq
Japan
Jordan

Kazakhstan
Kuwait
Kyrgyzstan
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Lebanon
Malaysia
Maldives
Marshall Islands
Micronesia (Federated States of)
Mongolia
Myanmar
Nauru
Nepal
Oman
Pakistan
Papua New Guinea
Philippines
Qatar
Republic of Korea
Samoa
Saudi Arabia
Singapore
Solomon Islands
Sri Lanka
Syrian Arab Republic
Tajikistan
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Tonga
Turkmenistan
Tuvalu
United Arab Emirates
Uzbekistan
Vanuatu
Viet Nam
Yemen[a]

Eastern European States (22 States)

Albania
Armenia***
Azerbaijan***
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina****
Bulgaria
Croatia****
Czech Republic*
Estonia***
Georgia***
Hungary
Latvia***
Lithuania***
Poland
Republic of Moldova***
Romania
Russian Federation***
Serbia and Montenegro****
Slovakia*
Slovenia****
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia****
Ukraine

Latin American and Caribbean States (33 States)

Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina
Bahamas
Barbados
Belize
Bolivia
Brazil
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Cuba
Dominica
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
Grenada
Guatemala
Guyana
Haiti
Honduras
Jamaica
Mexico

Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Saint Kitts and Nevis
Saint Lucia
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago
Uruguay
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)

Western European and other States (29 States)

Andorra
Australia
Austria
Belgium
Canada
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany**
Greece
Iceland
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Liechtenstein
Luxembourg
Malta
Monaco
Netherlands
New Zealand
Norway
Portugal
San Marino
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
Turkey
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
United States of America

Member of no regional group

Kiribati
Palau

Note: Both Palau and Kiribati are included in the Asian Group for the purposes of this analysis, notwithstanding that they do not formally adhere to this group.

Total: 191 Member States

States parties that are not members of the United Nations

Cook Islands[b]
Holy See[c]
Niue[b]

Defunct former States parties

Czechoslovakia*
German Democratic Republic**
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics***
Yugoslavia****

* Czechoslovakia ceased to exist on 1 January 1993, on which date the Czech Republic and Slovakia, as successor States to the former Czechoslovakia, considered themselves bound by the multilateral treaties deposited with the Secretary-General to which Czechoslovakia was party. Both States are within the Eastern European Group.

** The German Democratic Republic acceded to the Federal Republic of Germany on 3 October 1990, resulting in one less State within the Eastern European Group.

*** The Russian Federation, as of 24 December 1991, maintained full responsibility for the rights and obligations of the USSR under the multilateral treaties deposited with the Secretary-General. The territory which formerly constituted the USSR, entirely within the Eastern European Group, is now represented by the Russian Federation and 12 other independent States, seven within the Eastern group (Armenia, Azerbaijan; Estonia, Georgia, Latvia, Lithuania and the Republic of Moldova) and five within the Asian group (Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan). Belarus (as the Byelorussian SSR) and Ukraine (as the Ukrainian SSR) were each founding members of the United Nations in their own right.

**** The following States succeeded to the treaty rights and obligations with effect from the dates indicated previously undertaken by the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia: Bosnia and Herzegovina (6 March 1992), Croatia (8 October 1991), Serbia and Montenegro (27 April 1992), Slovenia (25 June 1991) and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (17 September 1991). The Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia ceased to exist upon the independence of these five successor States.

[a] On 22 May 1990, the Yemen Arab Republic and the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen merged to form the Republic of Yemen. Between 6 April 1989 and 22 May 1990, both States were parties to the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, resulting in an increase in the number of States parties in the Asian group.

[b] Cook Islands and Niue are self-governing territories in free association with New Zealand. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women was applied by New Zealand to the Cook Islands and Niue at the time of its ratification of the Convention on 10 January 1985. The Secretary-General, as depositary of multilateral treaties, recognized the full treaty-making capacity of the Cook Islands in 1992 and of Niue in 1994. Both States are parties to the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Currently, the Cook Islands and Niue are not parties to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women in their own right. For the purpose of this study, both States are included with the other Pacific States in the Asian group, notwithstanding that New Zealand is part of the Western group.

[c] The Holy See has observer status at the United Nations and is a party to three human rights conventions: International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, Convention against Torture and Convention on the Rights of the Child. It does not adhere to a regional group.

Annex II

Number of four-year terms served, by nationality

	Nationality of member	*Region*	*Number of terms**
1.	Egypt (formerly United Arab Republic)	AF	31
2.	Ecuador	LAC	23
3.	Germany (Federal Republic of)	WEO	23
4.	France	WEO	21.5
5.	Argentina	LAC	16.5
6.	Philippines	AP	15
7.	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	EE	15
8.	Cyprus	AP	14.5
9.	China	AP	13.5
10.	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	WEO	13.5
11.	India	AP	13
12.	Russian Federation	EE	12.5
13.	Tunisia	AF	12.5
14.	Yugoslavia	EE	12.5
15.	Japan	AP	12
16.	Bulgaria	EE	11
17.	Canada	WEO	11
18.	Nigeria	AF	11
19.	Italy	WEO	10.5
20.	Mauritius	AF	10.5
21.	Ghana	AF	10
22.	Mexico	LAC	10
23.	Romania	EE	9
24.	Senegal	AF	9
25.	Sweden	WEO	9
26.	Australia	WEO	8.5
27.	Pakistan	AP	8.5
28.	Denmark	WEO	8
29.	Burkina Faso (formerly Upper Volta)	AF	7.5
30.	Spain	WEO	7.5
31.	Peru	LAC	7.5
32.	Cuba	LAC	7
33.	Jamaica	LAC	7
34.	Netherlands	WEO	7
35.	Costa Rica	LAC	6.5

	Nationality of member	*Region*	*Number of terms*[a]
36.	Portugal	WEO	6.5
37.	Brazil	LAC	6
38.	Greece	WEO	6
39.	Israel	WEO	6
40.	Poland	EE	6
41.	United States of America	WEO	6
42.	Colombia	LAC	5.5
43.	Panama	LAC	5.5
44.	Norway	WEO	5.5
45.	Austria	WEO	5
46.	German Democratic Republic	EE	5
47.	Cameroon	AF	4.5
48.	Chile	LAC	4.5
49.	Jordan	AP	4.5
50.	Sri Lanka	AP	4.5
51.	Switzerland	WEO	4.5
52.	Algeria	AF	4
53.	Barbados	LAC	4
54.	Ethiopia	AF	4
55.	Finland	WEO	4
56.	Indonesia	AP	4
57.	Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	LAC	4
58.	Bangladesh	AP	3.5
59.	Guyana	LAC	3.5
60.	Hungary	EE	3.5
61.	Republic of Korea	AP	3.5
62.	Rwanda	AF	3.5
63.	South Africa	AF	3.5
64.	Zimbabwe	AF	3.5
65.	Kenya	AF	3
66.	Kuwait	AP	3
67.	New Zealand	WEO	3
68.	Nepal	AP	3
69.	Nicaragua	LAC	3
70.	Turkey	WEO	3
71.	Belarus	EE	2.5
72.	Benin	AF	2.5
73.	Guinea	AF	2.5
74.	Iran (Islamic Republic of)	AP	2
75.	Lebanon	AP	2

	Nationality of member	*Region*	*Number of terms**
76.	Malta	WEO	2
77.	Mongolia	AP	2
78.	Syrian Arab Republic	AP	2
79.	Togo	AF	2
80.	Uruguay	LAC	2
81.	Czechoslovakia	EE	1.5
82.	Morocco	AF	1.5
83.	Qatar	AP	1.5
84.	Slovenia	EE	1.5
85.	Belgium	WEO	1
86.	Croatia	EE	1
87.	Czech Republic	EE	1
88.	Guatemala	LAC	1
89.	Iraq	AP	1
90.	Mali	AF	1
91.	Paraguay	LAC	1
92.	Saint Kitts and Nevis	LAC	1
93.	Saudi Arabia	AP	1
94.	Serbia and Montenegro	EE	1
95.	Sudan	AF	1
96.	Swaziland	AF	1
97.	United Republic of Tanzania	AF	1
98.	Thailand	AP	1
99.	Uganda	AF	1
100.	Azerbaijan	EE	0.5
101.	El Salvador	LAC	0.5
102.	Ireland	WEO	0.5
103.	Malaysia	AP	0.5
104.	Singapore	AP	0.5
105.	Ukraine (formerly Ukrainian SSR)	EE	0.5
106.	Viet Nam	AP	0.5
	Total		**623**

* Half terms arise where, in accordance with the treaty provisions, a member receives a two-year term following the first election for a treaty body. Since data are provided to the end of 2006, half terms are also shown for current members whose terms run beyond 2006.

Note:
AF = African group
AP = Asian group (including the Pacific States)
EE = Eastern European group
LAC = Latin American and the Caribbean group
WEO = Western European and other States group

Annex III

Number of members elected to serve on the human rights treaty bodies and number of States parties eligible to vote at meetings of States parties, by regional group

Explanatory notes

For each committee, the first table compares the number of States parties eligible to vote with the number of committee members by regional group, shown with percentages of the total at the time of each election. The second table shows the difference in the percentages obtained from the first table, expressed as a positive or negative percentage value, which represents the degree to which the geographic distribution of membership equates to the number of States parties from each regional group.

The grand totals at the foot of each of the following charts (shown in bold) are provided for statistical purposes only and should be read with caution. The total number of States parties per region is a cumulative total which should be read as the maximum number of votes that could have been cast in all elections. Similarly, the total number of members per regional group should be read as the total number of two-year periods served; this figure is doubled to calculate the total number of four-year terms served (as shown in annex II).

The composition of each regional group has fluctuated over the years. Since it has not been possible to determine the precise composition of each group at the time of each election, the following calculations are based on the composition of the regional groups as of 14 April 2005. Nevertheless, calculations for the Eastern European group do incorporate States parties that existed at the time of earlier elections but have since been dissolved (Czechoslovakia, the German Democratic Republic, Yugoslavia). The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is included in the Eastern European group although many of its successor States belong to the Asian group.

A. Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (CERD)

1. Number of members elected to CERD and number of States parties eligible to vote, by regional group

	Africa				*Asia*				*Latin America and the Caribbean*				*Eastern Europe*				*Western Europe and Others*				*Total*	
Biennium	*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*	*Members*
1970-1972	9	26%	3	17%	9	25%	6	33%	7	20%	2	11%	6	17%	5	28%	5	14%	2	11%	35	18
1972-1974	13	23%	4	22%	11	20%	4	22%	11	20%	3	17%	7	13%	3	17%	14	25%	4	22%	56	18
1974-1976	20	28%	4	22%	14	19%	4	22%	15	21%	3	17%	7	10%	3	17%	16	22%	4	22%	72	18
1976-1978	25	29%	4	22%	17	20%	4	22%	17	20%	3	17%	7	8%	3	17%	19	22%	4	22%	85	18
1978-1980	32	34%	4	22%	18	19%	4	22%	18	19%	3	17%	7	7%	3	17%	19	20%	4	22%	94	18
1980-1982	35	34%	4	22%	20	19%	4	22%	20	19%	3	17%	7	7%	3	17%	21	20%	4	22%	103	18
1982-1984	37	34%	4	22%	21	19%	4	22%	22	20%	3	17%	7	6%	3	17%	21	19%	4	22%	108	18
1984-1986	39	33%	4	22%	27	23%	4	22%	24	20%	3	17%	7	6%	3	17%	22	18%	4	22%	119	18
1986-1988	39	32%	4	22%	28	23%	4	22%	25	21%	2	11%	7	6%	3	17%	22	18%	5	28%	121	18
1988-1990	39	32%	4	22%	28	23%	4	22%	25	21%	3	17%	7	6%	3	17%	22	18%	4	22%	121	18
1990-1992	41	33%	3	17%	29	23%	4	22%	26	21%	4	22%	7	6%	3	17%	22	18%	4	22%	125	18
1992-1994	42	33%	3	17%	29	23%	4	22%	27	21%	4	22%	8	6%	3	17%	22	17%	4	22%	128	18
1994-1996	42	31%	3	17%	29	21%	4	22%	27	20%	4	22%	16	12%	3	17%	22	16%	4	22%	136	18
1996-1998	42	29%	3	17%	33	23%	4	22%	27	19%	4	22%	18	12%	3	17%	25	17%	4	22%	145	18
1998-2000	43	29%	1	6%	35	23%	4	22%	27	18%	4	22%	19	13%	3	17%	25	17%	6	33%	149	18
2000-2002	44	29%	2	11%	37	24%	4	22%	27	18%	3	17%	21	14%	3	17%	25	16%	6	33%	154	18
2002-2004	47	29%	4	22%	37	23%	3	17%	28	17%	3	17%	22	14%	2	11%	27	17%	6	33%	161	18
2004-2006	48	28%	4	22%	40	24%	3	17%	30	18%	4	22%	22	13%	1	6%	29	17%	6	33%	169	18
Total	**637**	**31%**	**62**	**19%**	**462**	**22%**	**72**	**22%**	**403**	**19%**	**58**	**18%**	**202**	**10%**	**53**	**16%**	**378**	**18%**	**79**	**24%**	**2082**	**324**

Note: Elections of members are governed by article 18 of the Convention. Members are elected for terms of four years, except for the terms of nine of the members elected at the first election, which expired after two years. States parties meet every two years to elect nine members. The first elections were held in January 1970. Terms run from 19 January of the year of election to 18 January four years later, with elections at a meeting of States parties held in January every two years.

2. Percentage difference between numbers of members elected to CERD and States parties, by regional group

One member is equivalent to 5.55 per cent of the total membership of 18 members.

Biennium	*Africa*	*Asia*	*Latin America and the Caribbean*	*Eastern Europe*	*Western Europe and Others*
1970-1972	-8%	8%	-8%	11%	-3%
1972-1974	-1%	3%	-3%	4%	-3%
1974-1976	-6%	3%	-4%	7%	0%
1976-1978	-7%	2%	-3%	8%	0%
1978-1980	-12%	3%	-2%	9%	2%
1980-1982	-12%	3%	-3%	10%	2%
1982-1984	-12%	3%	-4%	10%	3%
1984-1986	-11%	0%	-4%	11%	4%
1986-1988	-10%	-1%	-10%	11%	10%
1988-1990	-10%	-1%	-4%	11%	4%
1990-1992	-16%	-1%	1%	11%	5%
1992-1994	-16%	0%	1%	10%	5%
1994-1996	-14%	1%	2%	5%	6%
1996-1998	-12%	-1%	4%	4%	5%
1998-2000	-23%	-1%	4%	4%	17%
2000-2002	-17%	-2%	-1%	3%	17%
2002-2004	-7%	-6%	-1%	-3%	17%
2004-2006	-6%	-7%	4%	-7%	16%
Average	**-11%**	**0%**	**-1%**	**7%**	**6%**

B. Human Rights Committee (HRC)

1. Number of members elected to HRC and number of States parties eligible to vote, by regional group

	Africa				*Asia*				*Latin America and the Caribbean*				*Eastern Europe*				*Western Europe and Others*				*Total*	
Biennium	*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*	*Members*
1977-1979	9	26%	3	17%	7	20%	3	17%	7	20%	3	17%	6	17%	3	17%	6	17%	6	33%	35	18
1979-1981	12	26%	3	17%	7	15%	4	22%	13	28%	2	11%	7	15%	4	22%	8	17%	5	28%	47	18
1981-1983	14	23%	3	17%	10	17%	3	17%	16	27%	3	17%	7	12%	3	17%	13	22%	6	33%	60	18
1983-1985	16	24%	2	11%	11	16%	3	17%	18	27%	3	17%	7	10%	3	17%	15	22%	7	39%	67	18
1985-1987	20	26%	4	22%	13	17%	2	11%	19	25%	3	17%	7	9%	3	17%	17	22%	6	33%	76	18
1987-1989	23	29%	4	22%	13	16%	3	17%	19	24%	3	17%	7	9%	3	17%	18	23%	5	28%	80	18
1989-1991	24	29%	4	22%	15	18%	3	17%	20	24%	3	17%	7	8%	3	17%	18	21%	5	28%	84	18
1991-1993	27	30%	4	22%	16	18%	3	17%	20	22%	3	17%	7	8%	3	17%	19	21%	5	28%	89	18
1993-1995	32	30%	3	17%	18	17%	3	17%	25	23%	4	22%	11	10%	2	11%	22	20%	6	33%	108	18
1995-1997	38	30%	2	11%	18	14%	3	17%	26	21%	5	28%	21	17%	1	6%	23	18%	7	39%	126	18
1997-1999	41	31%	2	11%	21	16%	3	17%	27	20%	3	17%	21	16%	1	6%	23	17%	9	50%	133	18
1999-2001	43	31%	2	11%	22	16%	3	17%	28	20%	3	17%	21	15%	1	6%	25	18%	9	50%	139	18
2001-2003	44	31%	4	22%	24	17%	2	11%	28	20%	3	17%	21	15%	0	0%	26	18%	9	50%	143	18
2003-2005	47	32%	4	22%	25	17%	2	11%	28	19%	3	17%	22	15%	1	6%	26	18%	8	44%	148	18
2005-2007	49	32%	4	22%	26	17%	2	11%	28	18%	4	22%	22	14%	1	6%	27	18%	7	39%	152	18
Total	**439**	**26%**	**48**	**18%**	**246**	**17%**	**42**	**16%**	**322**	**22%**	**48**	**18%**	**194**	**13%**	**32**	**12%**	**286**	**19%**	**100**	**37%**	**1487**	**270**

Note: Elections of members are governed by articles 28-34 of the Covenant. Members are elected for terms of four years, except for the terms of nine of the members elected at the first election, which expired after two years. States parties meet every two years to elect nine members. The first elections were held in September 1976. Terms run from 1 January of the year after election to 31 December four years later, with elections at a meeting of States parties held in September every two years.

2. Percentage difference between number of members elected to HRC and States parties, by regional group

One member is equivalent to 5.55 per cent of the total membership of 18 members.

Biennium	*Africa*	*Asia*	*Latin America and the Caribbean*	*Eastern Europe*	*Western Europe and Others*
1977-1979	-9%	-3%	-3%	0%	16%
1979-1981	-9%	7%	-17%	7%	11%
1981-1983	-7%	0%	-10%	5%	12%
1983-1985	-13%	0%	-10%	6%	17%
1985-1987	-4%	-6%	-8%	7%	11%
1987-1989	-7%	0%	-7%	8%	5%
1989-1991	-6%	-1%	-7%	8%	6%
1991-1993	-8%	-1%	-6%	9%	6%
1993-1995	-13%	0%	-1%	1%	13%
1995-1997	-19%	2%	7%	-11%	21%
1997-1999	-20%	1%	-4%	-10%	33%
1999-2001	-20%	1%	-3%	-10%	32%
2001-2003	-9%	-6%	-3%	-15%	32%
2003-2005	-10%	-6%	-2%	-9%	27%
2005-2007	-10%	-6%	4%	-9%	21%
Average	**-12%**	**-1%**	**-4%**	**-1%**	**18%**

C. Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)

1. Number of members elected to CEDAW and number of States parties, by regional group

	Africa				*Asia*				*Latin America and the Caribbean*				*Eastern Europe*				*Western Europe and Others*				*Total*	
Biennium	*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*	*Members*
1982-1984	4	11%	2	9%	7	18%	5	22%	13	34%	6	26%	10	26%	6	26%	4	11%	4	17%	38	23
1984-1986	9	16%	3	13%	7	13%	4	17%	20	36%	5	22%	10	18%	5	22%	10	18%	6	26%	56	23
1986-1988	21	25%	4	17%	14	16%	3	13%	23	27%	6	26%	10	12%	4	17%	17	20%	6	26%	85	23
1988-1990	25	27%	5	22%	15	16%	3	13%	25	27%	6	26%	10	11%	3	13%	19	20%	6	26%	94	23
1990-1992	28	28%	6	26%	15	15%	3	13%	27	27%	5	22%	10	10%	3	13%	20	20%	6	26%	100	23
1992-1994	30	27%	6	26%	16	15%	4	17%	31	28%	5	22%	10	9%	2	9%	23	21%	6	26%	110	23
1994-1996	36	28%	6	26%	22	17%	5	22%	33	25%	5	22%	16	12%	0	0%	23	18%	7	30%	130	23
1996-1998	43	28%	6	26%	29	19%	6	26%	33	22%	4	17%	22	15%	0	0%	24	16%	7	30%	151	23
1999-2000	46	29%	6	26%	34	21%	6	26%	33	20%	4	17%	22	14%	0	0%	26	16%	7	30%	161	23
2001-2002	48	29%	6	26%	36	22%	6	26%	33	20%	4	17%	22	13%	0	0%	26	16%	7	30%	165	23
2003-2004	49	29%	7	30%	40	24%	5	22%	33	19%	2	9%	22	13%	3	13%	26	15%	6	26%	170	23
2005-2006	51	29%	5	22%	44	25%	7	30%	33	19%	3	13%	22	12%	3	13%	27	15%	5	22%	177	23
Total	**390**	**27%**	**62**	**22%**	**279**	**19%**	**57**	**21%**	**337**	**23%**	**55**	**20%**	**186**	**13%**	**29**	**11%**	**245**	**17%**	**73**	**26%**	**1437**	**276**

Note: Elections of members are governed by article 17 of the Convention. Members are elected for terms of four years, except for the terms of 11 of the members elected at the first election, which expired after two years. States parties meet every two years to elect alternately 11 or 12 members. The first elections were held in April 1982. From 1982 to 1988 these terms ran from 16 April of the year of election to 15 April four years later, with elections usually held at a meeting of States parties in February. From 1 January 1999, the terms were amended to run from 1 January of the year after election to 31 December four years later, with elections at a meeting of States parties now held in August every two years.

2. Percentage difference between number of members elected to CEDAW and States parties, by regional group

One member is equivalent to 4.34 per cent of the total membership of 23 members.

Biennium	*Africa*	*Asia*	*Latin America and the Caribbean*	*Eastern Europe*	*Western Europe and Others*
1982-1984	-2%	3%	-8%	0%	7%
1984-1986	-3%	5%	-14%	4%	8%
1986-1988	-7%	-3%	-1%	6%	6%
1988-1990	-5%	-3%	-1%	2%	6%
1990-1992	-2%	-2%	-5%	3%	6%
1992-1994	-1%	3%	-6%	0%	5%
1994-1996	-2%	5%	-4%	-12%	13%
1996-1998	-2%	7%	-4%	-15%	15%
1999-2000	-2%	5%	-3%	-14%	14%
2001-2002	-3%	4%	-3%	-13%	15%
2003-2004	2%	-2%	-11%	0%	11%
2005-2006	-7%	6%	-6%	1%	6%
Average	**-5%**	**1%**	**-4%**	**-2%**	**9%**

D. Committee against Torture (CAT)

1. Number of members elected to CAT and number of States parties, by regional group

	Africa				*Asia*				*Latin America and the Caribbean*				*Eastern Europe*				*Western Europe and Others*				*Total*	
Biennium	*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*	*Members*
1988-1990	4	16%	1	10%	2	8%	1	10%	5	20%	2	20%	5	20%	2	20%	9	36%	4	40%	25	10
1990-1992	9	20%	1	10%	3	7%	1	10%	11	24%	2	20%	6	13%	2	20%	17	37%	4	40%	46	10
1992-1994	10	17%	3	30%	5	8%	0	0%	14	24%	2	20%	8	14%	2	20%	22	37%	3	30%	59	10
1994-1996	16	21%	3	30%	8	10%	1	10%	15	19%	2	20%	15	19%	1	10%	23	30%	3	30%	77	10
1996-1998	19	21%	2	20%	12	13%	2	20%	17	19%	1	10%	19	21%	2	20%	24	26%	3	30%	91	10
1998-2000	23	22%	2	20%	15	15%	2	20%	19	18%	1	10%	21	20%	2	20%	25	24%	3	30%	103	10
2000-2002	29	25%	2	20%	21	18%	2	20%	20	17%	1	10%	21	18%	1	10%	26	22%	4	40%	117	10
2002-2004	34	27%	2	20%	23	18%	2	20%	21	17%	1	10%	22	17%	1	10%	26	21%	4	40%	126	10
2004-2006	38	28%	2	20%	25	19%	2	20%	21	16%	2	20%	22	16%	1	10%	28	21%	3	30%	134	10
Total	**182**	**23%**	**18**	**20%**	**114**	**15%**	**13**	**14%**	**143**	**18%**	**14**	**16%**	**139**	**18%**	**14**	**16%**	**200**	**26%**	**31**	**34%**	**778**	**90**

Note: Elections of members are governed by article 17 of the Convention. Members are elected for terms of four years, except for the terms of five of the members elected at the first election, which expired after two years. States parties meet every two years to elect five members. The first elections were held in November 1987. Terms run from 1 January of the year after election to 31 December four years later, with elections at a meeting of States parties held in September every two years.

2. Percentage difference between number of members elected to CAT and States parties, by regional group

One member is equivalent to 10 per cent of the total membership of 10 members.

Biennium	*Africa*	*Asia*	*Latin America and the Caribbean*	*Eastern Europe*	*Western Europe and Others*
1988-1990	-6%	2%	0%	0%	4%
1990-1992	-10%	3%	-4%	7%	3%
1992-1994	13%	-8%	-4%	6%	-7%
1994-1996	9%	0%	1%	-9%	0%
1996-1998	-1%	7%	-9%	-1%	4%
1998-2000	-2%	5%	-8%	0%	6%
2000-2002	-5%	2%	-7%	-8%	18%
2002-2004	-7%	2%	-7%	-7%	19%
2004-2006	-8%	1%	4%	-6%	9%
Average	**-3%**	**0%**	**-3%**	**-2%**	**9%**

E. Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR)

1. Number of members elected to CESCR and number of States parties, by regional group

	Africa				*Asia*				*Latin America and the Caribbean*				*Eastern Europe*				*Western Europe and Others*				*Total*	
Biennium	*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*	*Members*
1986-1988	20	24%	4	22%	13	16%	3	17%	21	26%	4	22%	7	9%	3	17%	20	26%	4	22%	82	18
1988-1990	24	27%	4	22%	14	16%	3	17%	22	25%	4	22%	7	8%	3	17%	20	24%	4	22%	88	18
1990-1992	26	28%	4	22%	14	17%	3	17%	23	24%	4	22%	7	7%	3	17%	21	23%	4	22%	92	18
1992-1994	29	28%	4	22%	16	16%	3	17%	24	23%	4	22%	10	10%	3	17%	23	23%	4	22%	104	18
1994-1996	38	30%	4	22%	17	14%	3	17%	25	20%	4	22%	20	16%	3	17%	24	20%	4	22%	127	18
1996-1998	40	30%	4	22%	19	14%	3	17%	27	20%	4	22%	21	16%	3	17%	24	19%	4	22%	132	18
1998-2000	41	30%	4	22%	21	15%	3	17%	27	20%	4	22%	21	15%	3	17%	25	19%	4	22%	136	18
2000-2002	42	30%	4	22%	24	17%	3	17%	27	19%	4	22%	21	15%	3	17%	26	19%	4	22%	141	18
2002-2004	44	30%	4	22%	25	17%	3	17%	27	19%	4	22%	22	15%	3	17%	26	19%	4	22%	145	18
2004-2006	45	30%	4	22%	26	18%	4	22%	27	18%	3	17%	22	15%	3	17%	27	19%	4	22%	148	18
Total	**349**	**29%**	**40**	**22%**	**191**	**16%**	**31**	**17%**	**252**	**21%**	**39**	**22%**	**158**	**13%**	**30**	**17%**	**236**	**21%**	**40**	**22%**	**1195**	**180**

Note: Elections of members are governed by Economic and Social Council resolution 1985/17. Members are elected for terms of four years, except for the terms of nine of the members elected at the first election, which expired after two years. States parties nominate candidates, but it is the members of the Council that elect nine members every two years at one of their regular meetings. The first elections were held in May 1986. Terms run from 1 January of the year after election to 31 December four years later.

2. Percentage difference between number of members elected to CESCR and States parties, by regional group

One member is equivalent to 5.55 per cent of the total membership of 18 members.

Biennium	*Africa*	*Asia*	*Latin America and the Caribbean*	*Eastern Europe*	*Western Europe and Others*
1986-1988	-2%	1%	-3%	8%	-3%
1988-1990	-5%	1%	-3%	9%	-2%
1990-1992	-5%	0%	-2%	9%	-1%
1992-1994	-6%	1%	-1%	7%	-1%
1994-1996	-8%	3%	2%	1%	2%
1996-1998	-8%	2%	2%	1%	3%
1998-2000	-8%	1%	2%	1%	3%
2000-2002	-8%	0%	3%	2%	3%
2002-2004	-8%	-1%	4%	1%	4%
2004-2006	-8%	5%	-2%	2%	3%
Average	**-7%**	**1%**	**1%**	**3%**	**2%**

F. Committee on the Rights of the Child (CRC)

1. Number of members elected to CRC and number of States parties, by regional group

	Africa				*Asia*				*Latin America and the Caribbean*				*Eastern Europe*				*Western Europe and Others*				*Total*	
Biennium	*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*	*Members*
1991-1993	26	38%	3	38%	9	13%	1	10%	21	30%	3	30%	5	7%	1	10%	8	12%	2	20%	69	10
1993-1995	40	31%	3	31%	24	19%	1	10%	28	22%	3	30%	15	12%	1	10%	20	16%	2	20%	127	10
1995-1997	49	29%	3	29%	41	24%	1	10%	32	19%	2	20%	22	13%	1	10%	26	15%	3	30%	170	10
1997-1999	52	28%	2	28%	53	28%	2	20%	33	17%	2	20%	22	12%	1	10%	29	15%	3	30%	189	10
1999-2001	52	27%	3	27%	54	28%	2	20%	33	17%	1	10%	22	12%	0	0%	30	16%	4	40%	191	10
2001-2003	52	27%	2	27%	54	28%	3	30%	33	17%	1	10%	22	12%	0	0%	30	16%	4	40%	191	10
2003-2005	52	27%	5	27%	54	28%	4	22%	33	17%	4	22%	22	12%	1	6%	30	16%	4	22%	191	18
2005-2007	52	27%	6	27%	55	29%	3	17%	33	17%	3	17%	22	11%	1	6%	30	16%	5	28%	192	18
Total	**375**	**28%**	**27**	**28%**	**344**	**26%**	**17**	**18%**	**246**	**19%**	**19**	**20%**	**152**	**12%**	**6**	**6%**	**203**	**15%**	**27**	**28%**	**1320**	**96**

Note: Elections of members are governed by article 43 of the Convention. Members are elected for terms of four years, except for the terms of five of the members elected at the first election, which expired after two years. States parties meet every two years to elect nine members (previously five members). The first elections were held in February 1991. Terms run from 28 February of the year of election to 27 February four years later, with elections at a meeting of States parties held in September every two years.

2. Percentage difference between number of members elected to CRC and States parties, by regional group

Until 2003, one member was equivalent to 10 per cent of the total membership of 10 members; since 2003, one member represents 5.55 per cent of the total membership of 18 members.

Biennium	*Africa*	*Asia*	*Latin America and the Caribbean*	*Eastern Europe*	*Western Europe and Others*
1991-1993	-8%	-3%	0%	3%	8%
1993-1995	-1%	-9%	8%	-2%	4%
1995-1997	1%	-14%	1%	-3%	15%
1997-1999	-8%	-8%	3%	-2%	15%
1999-2001	3%	-8%	-7%	-12%	24%
2001-2003	-7%	2%	-7%	-12%	24%
2003-2005	1%	-6%	5%	-6%	7%
2005-2007	6%	-12%	-1%	-6%	12%
Average	**0%**	**-8%**	**1%**	**-5%**	**13%**

G. Committee on Migrant Workers (CMW)

1. Number of members elected to CMW and number of States parties, by region

	Africa				*Asia*				*Latin America and the Caribbean*				*Eastern Europe*				*Western Europe and Others*				*Total*	
Biennium	*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*		*Members*		*States parties*	*Members*
2004-2005	9	41%	3	30%	2	9%		20%	8	36%	4	40%	3	14%	1	10%	0	-	0	-	22	10

Note: Elections of members are governed by article 72 of the Convention. Members are elected for terms of four years, except for the terms of five of the members elected at the first election, which expire after two years. States parties meet every two years to elect five members. The first elections were held in December 2003. Terms run from 1 January of the year after election to 31 December four years later, with elections at a meeting of States parties held in December every two years.

2. Percentage difference between number of members elected to CMW and States parties, by regional group

One member is equivalent to 10 per cent of the total membership of 10 members.

Biennium	*Africa*	*Asia*	*Latin America and the Caribbean*	*Eastern Europe*	*Western Europe and Others*
2004-2005	**-9%**	**7%**	**5%**	**-3%**	**0%**

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Item 110 of the provisional agenda*
Notification by the Secretary-General under Article 12, paragraph 2, of the Charter of the United Nations

Notification by the Secretary-General under Article 12, paragraph 2, of the Charter of the United Nations

Note by the Secretary-General**

1. In accordance with the provisions of Article 12, paragraph 2, of the Charter of the United Nations and with the consent of the Security Council, the Secretary-General has the honour to notify the General Assembly of matters relative to the maintenance of international peace and security that are being dealt with by the Security Council and of matters with which the Council has ceased to deal.

2. The matters relative to the maintenance of international peace and security that have been discussed during the period since the notification to the General Assembly at its fifty-ninth session (A/59/335) are set out below in the order of their consideration.

1. Threats to international peace and security caused by terrorist acts.
2. Reports of the Secretary-General on the Sudan.[1]
3. The situation in the Middle East.
4. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Mission in Ethiopia and Eritrea pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B.[2]

* A/60/150.

** The present notification relates to the period from 1 September 2004 to 31 August 2005.

[1] As from the 5080th meeting, held at Nairobi on 18 November 2004, the wording of the item "Report of the Secretary-General on the Sudan" was revised to read "Reports of the Secretary-General on the Sudan".

[2] In accordance with a note by the President of the Security Council dated 27 August 2002 (S/2002/964), the wording of items concerning "Meeting of the Security Council with troop-contributing countries ... pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, section A" was revised to read "Meeting of the Security Council with troop-contributing countries ... pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B".

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5. The question concerning Haiti.

6. The situation between Eritrea and Ethiopia.

7. The situation between Iraq and Kuwait.

8. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations peacekeeping operation in Liberia pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B.[1]

9. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Mission in Sierra Leone pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B.

10. The situation in Liberia.

11. The situation in Sierra Leone.

12. The situation in Afghanistan.

13. The situation in the Middle East, including the Palestinian question.

14. Civilian aspects of conflict management and peacebuilding.

15. The situation in Burundi.

16. The situation in Africa.

17. The situation concerning the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

18. Justice and the rule of law: the United Nations role.

19. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B.

20. International Tribunal for the Prosecution of Persons Responsible for Serious Violations of International Humanitarian Law Committed in the Territory of the Former Yugoslavia since 1991.

21. The situation in Cyprus.

22. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Mission for the Referendum in Western Sahara pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B.

23. Security Council meetings in Nairobi (18-19 November 2004).

24. The situation in Somalia.

25. The situation in the Great Lakes region.

26. Women and peace and security.

27. The situation in the Central African Republic.

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[1] As from the 5034th (private) meeting, held on 15 September 2004, the wording of the item "Meeting of the Security Council with the potential troop and civilian police contributing countries to the proposed United Nations peacekeeping operation in Liberia pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B" was revised to read "Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Mission in Liberia pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B".

28. The situation concerning Western Sahara.

29. The situation in Guinea-Bissau.

30. The situation in Côte d'Ivoire.

31. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Mission of Support in East Timor pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B.

32. The situation in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

33. The situation in Timor-Leste.

34. Institutional relationship with the African Union.

35. International Tribunal for the Prosecution of Persons Responsible for Serious Violations of International Humanitarian Law Committed in the Territory of the Former Yugoslavia since 1991;

International Criminal Tribunal for the Prosecution of Persons Responsible for Genocide and Other Serious Violations of International Humanitarian Law Committed in the Territory of Rwanda and Rwandan Citizens Responsible for Genocide and Other Such Violations Committed in the Territory of Neighbouring States between 1 January and 31 December 1994.

36. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Stabilization Mission in Haiti pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B.

37. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Operation in Burundi pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B.

38. Security Council resolutions 1160 (1998), 1199 (1998), 1203 (1998), 1239 (1999) and 1244 (1999).

39. Security Council mission.

40. Non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction.

41. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Disengagement Observer Force pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B.

42. Protection of civilians in armed conflict.

43. Briefings by Chairmen of subsidiary bodies of the Security Council.[4]

44. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Observer Mission in Georgia pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B.

[4] As from the 5168th meeting, held on 25 April 2005, the wording of the item "Briefings by Chairmen of Security Council committees and working groups" was revised to read "Briefings by Chairmen of subsidiary bodies of the Security Council".

45. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B.

46. The situation in Georgia.

47. Small arms.

48. Children and armed conflict.

49. Cross-border issues in West Africa.

50. Briefing by the Chairman-in-Office of the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe.[5]

51. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B.

52. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Operation in Côte d'Ivoire pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B.

53. Wrap-up discussion on the work of the Security Council for the current month.

54. Post-conflict peacebuilding.

55. The situation concerning Iraq.

56. United Nations peacekeeping operations.

57. Letter dated 31 March 1998 from the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of Papua New Guinea to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/1998/287).

58. Africa's food crisis as a threat to peace and security.

59. The maintenance of international peace and security: the role of the Security Council in humanitarian crises — challenges, lessons learned and the way ahead.

60. The responsibility of the Security Council in the maintenance of international peace and security: HIV/AIDS and international peacekeeping operations.

61. Letters dated 26 July 2005 from the Permanent Representative of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/2005/485 and S/2005/489).

3. In accordance with the procedure set out in the note by the President of the Security Council of 29 August 1996 (S/1996/704), the Secretary-General, in his summary statement of 25 February 2005 on matters of which the Security Council is

[5] As from the 4964th meeting, held on 7 May 2004, the wording of the item "Briefing by His Excellency Mr. Mircea Geoana, Minister for Foreign Affairs of Romania, Chairman-in-Office of the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe" was revised to read "Briefing by the Chairman-in-Office of the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe".

seized and on the stage reached in their consideration submitted pursuant to rule 11 of the provisional rules of procedure of the Security Council (S/2005/15), informed Member States that, as at 1 January 2005, the Security Council had not considered in formal meetings during the preceding five-year period (2000-2004) the following items (the item numbers correspond to the listing contained in paragraph 8 of document S/2005/15):

1. The Palestine question.
2. The India-Pakistan question (S/628).
3. The Hyderabad question (S/986).
4. Letter dated 20 February 1958 from the representative of the Sudan addressed to the Secretary-General (S/3963).
5. Letter dated 11 July 1960 from the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Cuba addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/4378).
6. Letter dated 31 December 1960 from the Minister for External Affairs of Cuba addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/4605).
8. The situation in the India/Pakistan subcontinent (S/10411).
9. Letter dated 3 December 1971 from the Permanent Representatives of Algeria, Iraq, the Libyan Arab Republic and the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/10409).
10. Complaint by Cuba (S/10993).
11. Arrangements for the proposed Peace Conference on the Middle East.
15. The Middle East problem, including the Palestinian question.
16. Request by the Libyan Arab Republic and Pakistan for consideration of the serious situation arising from recent developments in the occupied Arab territories (S/12017).
17. The situation in the occupied Arab territories.
18. The question of the exercise by the Palestinian people of its inalienable rights.
19. The situation between Iran and Iraq.
23. Letter dated 1 October 1985 from the Permanent Representative of Tunisia to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/17509).
24. Letter dated 4 February 1986 from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/17787).
25. Letter dated 15 April 1986 from the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/17991);

Letter dated 15 April 1986 from the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of Burkina Faso to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/17992);

Letter dated 15 April 1986 from the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/17993);

Letter dated 15 April 1986 from the Permanent Representative of Oman to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/17994).

26. Letter dated 19 April 1988 from the Permanent Representative of Tunisia to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/19798).

27. Letter dated 4 January 1989 from the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/20364);

Letter dated 4 January 1989 from the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of Bahrain to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/20367).

28. Letter dated 2 February 1990 from the Permanent Representative of Cuba to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/21120).

38. Complaint by Ukraine regarding the decree of the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Federation concerning Sevastopol.

51. Letter dated 11 March 1998 from the Deputy Permanent Representative of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council;

Letter dated 27 March 1998 from the Permanent Representative of the United States of America to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council.

61. Promoting peace and security: humanitarian activities relevant to the Security Council.

63. Letter dated 24 March 1999 from the Permanent Representative of the Russian Federation to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council.

64. Letter dated 7 May 1999 from the Permanent Representative of China to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council.

65. Security Council resolutions 1160 (1998), 1199 (1998) and 1203 (1998).

66. Security Council resolutions 1160 (1998), 1199 (1998), 1203 (1998) and 1239 (1999).

4. Subsequently, in accordance with the procedure set out in document S/1996/704, the Secretary-General received notifications from Member States requesting him to retain items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 23, 24,

25, 26, 28 and 38, as they appear in paragraph 3 above, on the list of matters of which the Security Council is seized.

5. Also, pursuant to the decisions of the Security Council referred to above and in the absence of receipt of any notification to the contrary by 15 April 2005 requesting the retention of an item listed in paragraph 3 above, the remaining items mentioned therein, that is, items 27, 51, 61, 63, 64, 65 and 66, were deleted from the list of matters of which the Security Council is seized.

6. During the period since the notification to the General Assembly at its fifty-ninth session (A/59/335), the Security Council has not discussed at a formal meeting the following matters relative to the maintenance of international peace and security of which it remains seized:

1. The Palestine question.
2. The India-Pakistan question (S/628).
3. The Hyderabad question (S/986).
4. Letter dated 20 February 1958 from the representative of the Sudan addressed to the Secretary-General (S/3963).
5. Letter dated 11 July 1960 from the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Cuba addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/4378).
6. Letter dated 31 December 1960 from the Minister for External Affairs of Cuba addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/4605).
7. The situation in the India/Pakistan subcontinent (S/10411).
8. Letter dated 3 December 1971 from the Permanent Representatives of Algeria, Iraq, the Libyan Arab Republic and the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/10409).
9. Complaint by Cuba (S/10993).
10. Arrangements for the proposed Peace Conference on the Middle East.
11. The Middle East problem, including the Palestinian question.
12. Request by the Libyan Arab Republic and Pakistan for consideration of the serious situation arising from recent developments in the occupied Arab territories.
13. The situation in the occupied Arab territories.
14. The question of the exercise by the Palestinian people of its inalienable rights.
15. The situation between Iran and Iraq.
16. Letter dated 1 October 1985 from the Permanent Representative of Tunisia to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/17509).
17. Letter dated 4 February 1986 from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/17787).

18. Letter dated 15 April 1986 from the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/17991);

    Letter dated 15 April 1986 from the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of Burkina Faso to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/17992);

    Letter dated 15 April 1986 from the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/17993);

    Letter dated 15 April 1986 from the Permanent Representative of Oman to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/17994).

19. Letter dated 19 April 1988 from the Permanent Representative of Tunisia to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/19798).

20. Letter dated 2 February 1990 from the Permanent Representative of Cuba to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/21120).

21. The situation in Angola.

22. The situation concerning Rwanda.

23. The situation in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.

24. Complaint by Ukraine regarding the decree of the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Federation concerning Sevastopol.

25. The situation in Tajikistan and along the Tajik-Afghan border.

26. The situation in Croatia.

27. Maintenance of peace and security and post-conflict peacebuilding.

28. Promoting peace and security: humanitarian assistance to refugees in Africa.

29. Role of the Security Council in the prevention of armed conflicts.

30. Protection of United Nations personnel, associated personnel and humanitarian personnel in conflict zones.

31. Briefing by Mr. Carl Bildt, Special Envoy of the Secretary-General for the Balkans.

32. Maintaining peace and security: humanitarian aspects of issues before the Security Council.

33. General issues relating to sanctions.

34. Ensuring an effective role of the Security Council in the maintenance of international peace and security, particularly in Africa.

35. Briefing by Judge Gilbert Guillaume, President of the International Court of Justice.

36. Briefing by Mrs. Sadako Ogata, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.

37. Ensuring an effective role of the Security Council in the maintenance of international peace and security.

38. No exit without strategy.

39. Letter dated 10 November 2000 from the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of Solomon Islands to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/2000/1088).

40. Briefing by the Secretary-General.

41. The situation in Guinea following recent attacks along its borders with Liberia and Sierra Leone.

42. Strengthening cooperation with troop-contributing countries.

43. Peacebuilding: towards a comprehensive approach.

44. The situation in Guinea following recent attacks along its border with Liberia and Sierra Leone;

The situation in Liberia;

The situation in Sierra Leone.

45. Letter dated 4 March 2001 from the Permanent Representative of the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/2001/191).

46. The situation along the borders of Guinea, Liberia and Sierra Leone.

47. The situation in Guinea following recent attacks along its borders with Liberia and Sierra Leone;

The situation in Sierra Leone.

48. Wrap-up discussion on the work of the Security Council for the month of June 2001.

49. Security Council resolution 1160 (1998) of 31 March 1998.

50. Briefing by His Excellency Mr. Nebojša Čović, Deputy Prime Minister of Serbia, Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.

51. Security Council resolution 1054 (1996) of 24 April 1996.

52. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Iraq-Kuwait Observation Mission pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, section A.

53. Nobel Peace Prize.

54. Letter dated 30 April 2001 from the Secretary-General addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/2001/434).

55. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Mission of Observers in Prevlaka pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, sections A and B.

56. Security Council Working Group on Peacekeeping Operations.

57. Briefing by the United Nations Commissioner for Refugees.[6]

58. Food aid in the context of conflict settlement: Afghanistan and other crisis areas.

59. Meeting of the Security Council with the troop-contributing countries to the United Nations Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina pursuant to resolution 1353 (2001), annex II, section A.

60. United Nations peacekeeping.

61. High-level meeting of the Security Council on the anniversary of 11 September 2001: acts of international terrorism.

62. Strengthening cooperation between the United Nations system and the Central African region in the maintenance of peace and security.

63. Letter dated 29 November 2002 from the Permanent Representative of Chad to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/2002/1317).

64. Briefings by the Chairmen of the Security Council Committee established by resolution 661 (1990) concerning the situation between Iraq and Kuwait, the Security Council Committee established pursuant to resolution 864 (1993) concerning the situation in Angola, the Security Council Committee established pursuant to resolution 1267 (1999), the Security Council Committee established pursuant to resolution 1343 (2001) concerning Liberia, the Ad Hoc Working Group on Conflict Prevention and Resolution in Africa, and the Security Council Working Group on Peacekeeping Operations.

65. High-level meeting of the Security Council: combating terrorism.

66. Kimberley Process Certification Scheme.

67. Proliferation of small arms and light weapons and mercenary activities: threats to peace and security in West Africa.

68. The Security Council and regional organizations: facing the new challenges to international peace and security.

69. The role of the Security Council in the pacific settlement of disputes.

70. Response to the humanitarian situation in Iraq.

71. Letter dated 5 October 2003 from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/2003/939);

    Letter dated 5 October 2003 from the Permanent Representative of Lebanon to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/2003/943).

[6] As from the 4973rd meeting, held on 20 May 2004, the wording of the item "Briefing by Mr. Ruud Lubbers, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees" was revised to read "Briefing by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees".

72. Letter dated 2 October 2003 from the Permanent Representative of the Sudan to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/2003/934).

73. The importance of mine action for peacekeeping operations.

74. Central African region.

75. Post-conflict national reconciliation: role of the United Nations.

76. The role of business in conflict prevention, peacekeeping and post-conflict peacebuilding.

77. Decision of the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya to abandon its weapons of mass destruction programmes.

78. Letter dated 25 May 2004 from the Permanent Representative of the Sudan to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/2004/425).

79. Complex crises and United Nations response.

80. Role of civil society in post-conflict peacebuilding.

81. Cooperation between the United Nations and regional organizations in stabilization processes.